

PERCEPT TEACHERS BELIEFS ABOUT DEVELOPMENTALLY
APPROPRIATE PRACTICES AND EDUCATIONAL THOUGHTS AND
PRACTICES IN EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

By

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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**PRESERVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT DEVELOPMENTALLY
APPROPRIATE PRACTICES AND INTERVENAL TECHNIQUES AND
PRACTICES IN EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS**

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The purpose of this study was to evaluate preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices. Specifically, this study investigates similarities and differences between early childhood education (ECE), early childhood special education (ECSE), and unified early childhood (Unified) teacher preparation programs. Previous research indicates that teachers' beliefs largely influence their behavior in the classroom. Exploring aspects of the similarities and differences in beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices among preservice teachers in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs may assist in curriculum development and training as well as continuing education for in-service teachers. Moreover, understanding these differences may help teacher preparation programs bridge the gap between the traditionally different disciplines of ECE and ECSE. Preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally

appropriate processes and behavioral techniques and practices (e.g., assessed for TBI preservice teachers across three ECTE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs using the Teacher Beliefs Scale (TBS) and the Behavioral Beliefs Scale (BBS). The results of this study indicated that preservice teachers in ECSE and Unified teacher preparation programs held similar beliefs about developmentally appropriate processes and behavioral techniques and practices. However, this study found that preservice teachers in ECTE programs held significantly different beliefs about developmentally appropriate processes and behavioral techniques and practices when compared with preservice teachers in ECSE and Unified teacher training programs. Given these findings, it is imperative that the fields of ECTE and ECSE work together to identify common beliefs and resolve belief differences if they are to successfully collaborate in meeting the needs of typically and atypically developing children.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Teachers' beliefs largely influence their behavior in the classroom (Blöme, 1992; Chubbuck, Hall, Davis, & DeWalt, 1993; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Davis & Kottler, 1983; Hyman, Roseth-Pink, & Roscoe, 1996; Long, 1996; Lundberg, 1996; Mastry, 1992; Smith, 1991), therefore teachers' beliefs are important in study, understand, define and modify. Although in recent years, many attempts have been made to do so, no uniform resolution about a definition of beliefs has emerged (Long, 1996, see also Richardson, 1996).

Usually a belief can be defined as some conception of reality possessing enough validity or credibility or that is backed by enough experience to enable the individual holding the belief of its truth (Klein, 1975; Piquero, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Beliefs are generally formed or reinforced based on the experience of the individual holding the belief. As a result, one would expect that they could be influenced by outside intervention. However, because beliefs are also frequently comprised of or related to other constructs, such as belief systems, attitudes, perceptions, values, opinions, judgments, rules, principles, perceptions, dispositions, and strategies, they are not easily modified (Richard & Scheller, 1999; Piquero, 1992; Richardson, 1996).

Recent research has developed a number of conclusions about beliefs that provide important starting points for studying and analyzing teachers' beliefs in early childhood

settings. Research on teachers' beliefs suggests that teachers develop their beliefs long before they enter teacher preparation programs (Lortie, 1975; Riquarts, 1988; Richardson, 1996). Additionally, many research studies have recognized that teachers develop many of their deep-seated beliefs about teaching during their own formal education experience (Lortie, 1975; Richardson, 1996). Lortie (1975) referred to this belief development experience as an "apprenticeship of observation."

Research on teachers' beliefs has also demonstrated that beliefs are very difficult to change or modify, particularly when teachers have held those beliefs for a long period of time (Abelson, 1978; Clark, 1988; Maerly, 1982; Neuper, 1982; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Riquarts, 1988; Posner, Strike, Hovson, & Cusack, 1982; Riechardt, 1984). Many of the beliefs teachers develop during the so-called apprenticeship of observation are carried forward unchanged into teacher preparation programs.

Although understanding teachers' beliefs is critical to the study of teachers' practices, very little is known about them. This is particularly true for teachers working with young children in integrated and inclusive educational settings (Casta, 1991; Charlemore-Hart, Hart, & Henderson, 1990; Charlemore-Hart, Hart, Thompson et al., 1995; Fink, 1994; Carter et al., 1998; Stahl & Freeman, 1987; Jamberg, 1990; Spodick, 1984). The systematic study of teachers' beliefs is likely to yield substantial insights into the context of teachers' behavior and practice, which may help teacher educators to change classroom dynamics or develop appropriate preservice teacher training programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices

Specifically, the study investigates differences and similarities in these beliefs between three groups: early childhood education (ECE), early childhood special education (ECSE), and unified early childhood (Unified) teacher preparation programs. The results of this study may then be used to make recommendations for postservice teacher education in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs, particularly with reference to developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices. Given the findings of Sontag (1996) that there were no significant differences in the beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices held by early childhood and early childhood special educators, further research on particular types of practices showed to be instrumental is warranted. Particularly, since Sontag (1996) found a significant difference between teachers' beliefs about two behavioral techniques,

Importance in Teacher Education

This study will not only aid in the understanding of beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices, but it will also aid in developing appropriate training experiences for ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs. It should further aid in the understanding of differences in preservice teachers' beliefs among the types of programs studied, which should also aid in the development of appropriate programmatic changes by teacher education and administrators, particularly in light of the recent trend towards inclusion in early childhood education.

Research Questions

The following questions will be addressed:

1. What beliefs do preservice teachers in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs hold about developmentally appropriate practices?
2. Are there significant differences in beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices between preservice teachers in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs?
3. Are there statistically significant and noteworthy relationships between beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and individual characteristics (e.g., chronological age, ethnicity) of early childhood preservice teachers?
4. What beliefs do preservice teachers in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs hold about the use of behavioral techniques and practices?
5. Are there significant differences in beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices between preservice teachers in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs?
6. Are there statistically significant and noteworthy relationships between beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices, and individual characteristics (e.g., chronological age, ethnicity) of early childhood preservice teachers?

Summary and Overview of Remaining Chapters

This study addressed (a) ECE preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices, (b) ECSE preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices, (c) United preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices, (d) ECE preservice teachers' beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices, (e) ECSE preservice teachers' beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices, and (f) United preservice teachers' beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices. Despite the importance of teachers' beliefs, little research has been devoted to examining the beliefs of early childhood preservice teachers (see Cuts, 1994; Charneyworth et al., 1993; Charneyworth, Hart, Burt, Thompson et al., 1993; Fox, 1994; Linder et al., 1998; Raab & Thomas, 1988; Leung, 1998). This research is a step toward enhancing the knowledge base on teachers' beliefs, specifically those that work with young children.

Chapter 2 provides a review and analysis of relevant literature from the following areas: teachers' beliefs, ECE teacher preparation programs, ECSE teacher preparation programs, United teacher preparation programs, developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices. Chapter 3 contains a description of the research methodology and procedures used in this study. Chapter 4 describes the results of this study. The final chapter (Chapter 5) discusses the results of the study in light of previous research. Additionally, it discusses the scope and limitations of this study and the implications for teacher education and future research.

CHAPTER 1 LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction to Teachers' Beliefs

Of the many constructs studied in educational psychology and practice, teachers' beliefs are some of the most important, yet most elusive, to researchers. Teachers' beliefs largely influence how teachers perceive, process, and act in their classrooms (Bloom, 1992; Chartersworth, Hart, & van Thienen, 2001; Clark & Peterson, 1984; Fung, 1998; Gage & Cogan, 1987; Hyman, Harsh-Pauk, & Kozlowski, 1990; Isenberg, 1986; Mundy, 1982; Smith, 1992). Therefore, as an element of the context of teacher behavior, it is important to understand teachers' beliefs (Bacharach, 1994, see also Peterson, 1998). The difficulty in understanding teachers' beliefs generally lies in how they are defined, how they are studied, and how they relate to other constructs and phenomena, many of which are themselves difficult to study or quantify.

While many researchers have studied constructs variously defined as "beliefs" or "teacher-beliefs" has emerged (Bacharach, 1994). Generally, a belief is a conviction of some entity possessing enough stability or consistency, or that is backed by enough experience, to satisfy the individual holding the belief of its truth (Green, 1971; Papayan, 1992; Bacharach, 1994). It is usually temporary and contextually bound and strongly guides thoughts, behavior, and actions (Fung, 1998; Harney, 1986; Papayan, 1992). Papayan (1992) suggests that educational beliefs usually relate to the distinction between beliefs and knowledge: beliefs are generally based on conviction and judgment while

how knowledge is generally based on objectives that (are also Hooper, 1987; Richardson, 1996). Also, beliefs are thought to have more affective and evaluative components than knowledge (Fajana, 1992; Mahool & Schaller, 1995). Thus, how teachers represent beliefs, as opposed to knowledge, further defines beliefs' characteristics. Of course, when it comes to teachers' beliefs it is difficult to separate such precise accuracy.

Beliefs also comprise or are related to other constructs, such as belief systems, attitudes, perceptions, values, opinions, judgments, rules, principles, preconceptions, dispositions, and strategies (Mahool & Schaller, 1995; Fajana, 1992; Richardson, 1996). The extent to which these constructs guide and control thought and behavior has been the subject of study in education for the last few decades (e.g., since the 1950s). Most of the studies attempt to link teachers' beliefs and similar constructs (e.g., attitudes) to their educational practices (Richardson, 1996). It has only been at recent years (i.e., the last 10 years) that teacher education research has begun to examine teachers' beliefs more thoroughly (Fong, 1998; see also Richardson, 1996). Although research connects beliefs and attitudes involved in stated attitudes between the early 1950s and the early 1970s (Richardson, 1996), there has been a surge of interest in beliefs in recent years (Richardson, 1996). Research studies have developed a number of constructs about beliefs that provide important starting points for studying and analyzing teachers' beliefs in early childhood settings.

Research on Teachers' Beliefs

Acquisition of Beliefs

Research on teachers' beliefs has demonstrated that beliefs are often acquired well before teachers have undergone formal training education (Lerner, 1975; Fajana, 1995; Richardson, 1996; Taito, 1998). Many studies have suggested that preservice teachers

develops number of beliefs about education (Dunne, 1991) from a "so-called apprenticeship of observation" that occurs during their own formative educational experience (Lieber, 1995; Mahesh & Schaller, 1991; Pajares, 1996; Richardson, 1994). In fact, most beliefs used by teachers are derived from personal experience (Kempster, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Spolsky, 1983). The most teachers' life process of cultural transmission gradually occurs long before teacher education has even been given the opportunity to make its mark. Furthermore, previous classroom experience and reflection on that experience often influences teachers' beliefs (Grossman, Esch, & Byers, 1988; Chubb, 1989; Fong, 1996; Richards, Gipe, & Thompson, 1987).

Factors related to beliefs

Research on teachers' beliefs has demonstrated that beliefs – held over long periods of time – are very difficult to change (Anderson, 1978; Clark, 1984; Marley, 1982; Nepton, 1987; Nohari & Nevo, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Pianta et al., 1992; Schaefer, 1984). Pajares (1992) described this as the persistence principle. Beliefs acquired during the apprenticeship of observation and generally held by preservice teachers often remain unchanged throughout the teacher preparation process and carry forward in classroom experience (Mahesh & Schaller, 1991; Pajares, 1992). Such resistance to change in beliefs explains why many practices considered to be developmentally inappropriate persist despite efforts at teacher education and training regarding more developmentally appropriate practices. Research also suggests that teachers' beliefs often provide despite contradictory information or integration of incomplete knowledge (Anderson, 1978; Blackman, 1984, 1987; Blackman & Schwille, 1983; Clark, 1988; Pianta-Raines & Lemons, 1998; Gossling & Newman, 1989; Lortie, 1980; Lewis, 1978; Mahesh & Schaller, 1991; Marley, 1982; Nepton, 1987; Nohari & Nevo, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Pianta

et al. 1987, Robertson 1989, Roberts 1988, Schanzen, 1989, Van Fleet, 1979, Wilson 1980)

Influences on Practices

Research suggests that teachers' beliefs strongly influence behavior (Gross, 1982, Chaffinworth, Hart, Berts, Thomsen et al. 1993, Dunn & Kerner 1983, Jung, 1986, Hyson, Frank, Pank & Swartz, 1989, Isenberg, 1986, Smith, 1993, and also Ajalon, 1979, Barkley 1988, Brown & Cooley 1982, Chaffinworth et al. 1993, Clark & Peterson, 1986, Florschutz, Roman, Hurling, & Carlbart, 1988, Ernest, 1989, Goodson, 1988, Harvey 1986, Kagan & Smith, 1989, Kagan et al., 1990, Kitchener 1984, Lyster et al., 1994, Mahood & Schilder 1993, Neuge 1983, Nelson & Ross, 1989, Roberts 1988, Smith & Shepard 1988, Spindel, 1983, Spindel, 1988, Tschannick & Zuckerman 1984). However, other research has shown that occasionally some teachers employ practices that are inconsistent with their beliefs (Kagan & Dunn, 1993). This is exemplified by researchers such as Chaffinworth, Hart, Berts, & DeWalt 1993, Smith & Swanson, 1988, Kathan, McGinnis & Linschote 1992) indicating that desired policies or principal directives inconsistent with a teachers' beliefs may be followed by teachers. This may have to do with other beliefs holding by the teacher, including the belief that adherence to administrative demands is an important virtue.

Gross (1997) suggested that it is quite possible for individuals to hold beliefs that are incompatible. Gross pointed out that individuals hold beliefs in clusters. Each belief cluster holds makes a larger belief system. Therefore, beliefs that are contradictory may be part of different belief clusters. Gross further pointed that conflicting beliefs may persist if they are never compared and examined for consistency.

Study of Beliefs

The extent to which the literature has discussed these factors as relating teachers' beliefs to teachers' practices suggests the importance of further research in this area. Currently, very little is known about the beliefs of teachers working with young children in inclusive or segregated educational settings (Catts, 1994; Charlierworth et al., 1991; Charlierworth, Hart, Hart, & DeWolf, 1993; Ellis, 1994; Lusher et al., 1988; Hatch & Farnham, 1988; Lushberg, 1988; Spivak, 1988). However, teachers' beliefs are central considerations in understanding teachers' practices and adopted aspects of mainstream teaching (Lushberg, 1988; Richardson, 1994). Thus, further research is warranted in this area.

In the past, research on teachers' beliefs has relied upon a variety of measures (e.g., interviews, questionnaires, observations) (see Charlierworth et al., 1994; Charlierworth, Hart, Hart, & DeWolf, 1993; Charlierworth, Hart, Hart, Thomasson et al., 1991; Brown & Kagan, 1988; Ellis, 1994; Kemple, Ryan, & David, 1986; Hatch & Farnham, 1988; Kagan & Smith, 1988; Porter & Farnham, 1987; Smith, 1992; Spivak, 1988; Nye & Tyler, 1997; Wang, 1985). Currently, interviews and observations are two of the most frequently employed measures (Richardson, 1994). However, many of the research studies on early childhood teachers' beliefs have additionally utilized questionnaires and rating scales (see Charlierworth et al., 1991; Charlierworth, Hart, Hart, & DeWolf, 1993; Charlierworth, Hart, Hart, Thomasson et al., 1991; Brown & Kagan, 1988; Ellis, 1994; Kagan & Smith, 1988; Kemple, Ryan, & David, 1986; Smith, 1992; Spivak & Tyler, 1997). All of these research approaches (e.g., interviews, observations, questionnaires, rating scales) are appropriate and promising (Payton, 1992). Ultimately, the approach employed depends on the researcher's question and how the

researcher's wishes explored (Payton, 1992). Currently, more innovative techniques, such as the use of multiple measures, are providing researchers with better tools to explore and assess teachers' beliefs.

Measuring and assessing preservice teachers' beliefs is critical to understanding them, and is yet even more important in the process of developing appropriate posttest training programs (Rae Talle, 1994). Assessing beliefs of preservice teachers from different types of teacher preparation programs provides an opportunity to compare beliefs among early childhood educators.

Early Childhood Teacher Preparation Programs

Early childhood education (ECE) teacher preparation programs train preservice teachers to work with young children in a variety of settings. Currently, three distinct teacher preparation programs have emerged in the United States: early childhood education (ECE) teacher preparation programs, early childhood special education (ECSE) teacher preparation programs, and unified early childhood (Unified) teacher preparation programs. Goodkamp (1991) noted that since these early childhood teacher preparation programs are often separated physically and philosophically. Following is a brief discussion on each type of teacher preparation training program.

Early Childhood Education Teacher Preparation Programs

Early childhood education (ECE) teacher preparation programs train preservice teachers to work typically developing children from birth to age eight. These programs have undergone considerable change since their emergence in the late 1960s (Spitzer & Sanchez, 1998). Currently, the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) is the primary organization establishing professional guidelines for early childhood education (Barton, Evans, Bartlett, Mylan, & McCormack, 1992). The

NAEYC first began making efforts to establish professional practice guidelines in 1981. Shortly thereafter, it developed policies and procedures for the voluntary certification of early childhood programs (Burton et al., 1992). Historically, ECE teacher preparation programs have been viewed as constructivist. Even today, constructivist dominates educational philosophy in these programs (Smith & Brookkamp, 1998) (see also Wiley, Kays, & Harmanen, 1994; Wiley & Wilcox, 1994). Thus, ECE teacher preparation programs typically are not grounded in behaviorist theory.

Early Childhood Special Education Teacher Preparation Programs

Early childhood special education (ECSE) teacher preparation programs train paraprofessional teachers to serve children from birth to age eight with special needs. Traditionally, many ECSE teacher preparation programs have been largely grounded in behaviorist theory (Smith & Brookkamp, 1998) (see also Wiley et al., 1994; Wiley & Wilcox, 1994). This is largely due to the inherent challenges faced by ECSE teachers in disciplinary and instructional matters. Just as NAEYC has been the primary organization establishing guidelines for ECE, the Division of Early Childhood (DEC), Council for Exceptional Children has been the primary organization establishing guidelines and ensuring a level of beginning and continuing professional competence within ECSE. (McCallum, McCann, McCarter, & Kays, 1999). DEC has developed and established recommended programs for professionals working with young children with special needs. These practices support the use of behaviorist techniques and practices (DEC Task Force on Recommended Practices, 1993).

Unified Early Childhood Teacher Preparation Programs

Unified early childhood (Unified) teacher preparation programs prepare paraprofessional teachers to serve all children, including those with special needs. These

programs typically draw upon philosophy and practice common both the fields of ECE and ECSE (Baron et al., 1992; Gargalo et al., 1997). In many ways, Unified teacher preparation programs are ideal because the knowledge base and practices in ECE and ECSE are very similar (e.g., both work with young children at various developmental levels and should promote the ability to establish positive, meaningful relationships with families) (April 1993; Gargalo, Strider & Steinberger, 1997; Kauffman, Barile, Curran, & Fox, 1994; Lewenthal, 1992). Furthermore, professionals in the fields of ECE and ECSE have voiced their support of Unified teacher preparation programs by stating that the time has arrived to end segregated, categorical teacher preparation programs (Baron et al., 1992; DEC Task Force on Recommended Practices, 1993; Gargalo & Strider, 1995; Miller, 1992; NAEYC, 1996; see also Benetkamp, 1993; Bigler, Griffin, Judith Taylor & Whalen, 1994; Lewenthal, 1992; Sullivan, 1993). In fact, contemporary research reflects a categorical approach to teacher preparation training (Garcia & Lipsey, 1987; Miller, 1992). Unified teacher preparation programs have the potential to train early childhood teachers so that the individual needs of children in a variety of settings (Gargalo et al., 1997). With full inclusion, more and more children with special needs are being included in early childhood programs designed for typically developing children (Gargalo et al., 1997; Sutton, 1994; Wolery, Brookfield et al., 1993; Wolery, Hulsbosch et al., 1995; Wolery, Hulsbosch-Isgut et al., 1995; Wolery, Schneider et al., 1996). As a result, "early childhood educators are going to become increasingly responsible for teaching young children with special needs" (Gargalo et al., 1997, p. 137). The concept of collaboration across the fields of ECE and ECSE holds a great deal of promise (Sutton et al., 1994). Teachers trained in these programs will be prepared to

provide early education services which are developmentally and individually appropriate (Ginsburg & Glaser, 1995). As a result of these broader preparation training, they are able to draw upon effective practices from the fields of ECE and ECSE.

Implications for Early Childhood Education and Early Childhood Special Education Teacher Training Programs' Practices, Goals, and Outcomes

Historically, educational philosophy and practice have differed between ECE and ECSE (Brooks-Gunn, 1995; Burtner et al., 1992; Walery & Wilkins, 1999). As discussed earlier, ECE education has been traditionally grounded in constructivism while ECSE has been largely based on behaviorist theory (Smith & Brooks-Gunn, 1998, see also Walery, Weiss, & Holmbeck, 1994; Walery & Wilkins, 1999). More often than not, ECE and ECSE have maintained separate programs and services. Thus, it was possible for ECE and ECSE educators to keep their educational philosophies and practices separate (Smith & Brooks-Gunn, 1998). However, in recent years more children with special needs are being included in early childhood classrooms (Sexton, 1998; Walery, Brookfield et al., 1992; Walery, Holmbeck, et al., 1992; Walery, Holmbeck-Lipson et al., 1992; Walery, Schneider et al., 1994) resulting in professionals from a variety of fields working together. This convergence results in the blending of techniques and practices (see Kalgo et al., 1999). However, in other areas, it results in heated debates on appropriate practice (Smith & Brooks-Gunn, 1998; see also Brooks-Gunn, 1995; Carta, 1994; Carta, 1998; Carta & Johnson, Aramata, & McConnell, 1991; Carta, Aramata, Johnson, & McConnell, 1991; Johnson & Johnson, 1992; Johnson & Johnson, 1993; Johnson & Johnson, 1994). Unfortunately, many perceive some of the most commonly used techniques and practices in the fields of ECE and ECSE as incompatible. For example, many behavioral techniques (e.g., tangible rewards) used in ECSE have been criticized by ECE educators

(Johnson & Beeghly, 1987, see also Wiley & Bredekamp, 1994). Smith & Bredekamp (1990) suggest that the techniques and practices outlined within the two fields should not be perceived as incompatible but as complementary, representing different points on a continuum (see also Apple, 1993; Bredekamp & Beeghly, 1993; Goplin et al., 1994; Lewenthal, 1992). Furthermore, Smith & Bredekamp (1990) propose that a wide range of strategies can be viewed as appropriate and that techniques and practices should be selected and tailored to meet the individual needs of the child(ren).

The differences between ECE and ECSE educators' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices, specifically those held about behavioral techniques and practices, has drawn little empirical research, although they are rarely perceived from a review of contemporary literature from both fields. However, what is meant by developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices requires some deconstruction. Beliefs about them can be evaluated.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

The NAEYC (the largest organization of early childhood educators) has as its mission "to act on behalf of children by improving the quality of programs and raising public awareness about what constitutes good-quality" (Bredekamp, 1992, p. 29). In 1987, in response to a growing trend toward more formal academic instruction in the early childhood classroom, the NAEYC published its position on *Developmentally Appropriate Practice* (DAP) guidelines (Bredekamp, 1987; Carta, 1996, see also Osofsky, 1998). These guidelines attempted to clearly types of developmentally appropriate and inappropriate practices for children between birth and age eight (Bredekamp, 1987). Of course, it would be impossible for the NAEYC to describe all appropriate and inappropriate practices. Therefore, NAEYC has only attempted to agree

as more reasonable and reliable principles to guide early childhood professionals in their decision-making (Berkelman, 1997). Essentially, the DAP guidelines attempt to assist professionals in ECE classrooms in making judgments by informing their decision making (Gutwaks, 1999).

NAEYC indicates that the DAP Guidelines are based on child development knowledge (Berkelman & Coggins, 1997). NAEYC taking the position that, "programs designed for young children should be based on what is known about young children" (Berkelman & Coggins, 1997, p. vi). Considering child development knowledge is essential for ECE teachers, because it assists them in understanding how children learn. As a result, early childhood teachers can better structure the learning environment so that children are presented with experiences that are engaging, achievable, and challenging (Gutwaks, 1999). In summary, developmentally appropriate practice domains are more based on child development knowledge, each individual child, the child's family, and the child's culture (Berkelman & Coggins, 1997; Gutwaks, 1999).

In 1983, the release of the DAP guidelines sparked numerous debates among ECE educators regarding the clarity and interpretation of the practices presented (Berkelman, 1997; Berkelman & Coggins, 1997; see also Kessler, 1990; Maloney & Nove, 1991; Berkman & Kessler, 1990). Many ECE educators felt that NAEYC had oversimplified the concept of DAP (Berkelman, 1997). These debates and professional literature on this topic contributed to a new knowledge base. NAEYC responded to this new information by revising its position statements, which was released in 1997.

The newly revised guidelines (Berkelman & Coggins, 1997) expand and clarify the definition of developmentally appropriate practice (Berkelman, 1997). In the revised

guidelines, NAEYC posited that developmentally appropriate practice builds on three important kinds of information and knowledge: (a) "what is known about child development and learning, (b) what is known about the strengths, interests, and needs of the individual children in the group, and (c) knowledge of the social and cultural contexts in which children live" (NAEYC, 1992, 3-4). Furthermore, these guidelines describe a continuum of teaching practices by including more examples of inappropriate and appropriate practices than the previous guidelines released ten years earlier. The newly revised NAEYC guidelines suggest that teachers should find the appropriate balance between child-initiated and child-redirected learning in the ECE classroom. Thus, ECE teachers are not overly passive or overly directive (Bredekamp, 1997). Jack & Winton (1992) suggest that the role of the developmentally appropriate classroom is a complex one that includes collaboration, support, reflection, instruction, modeling direction, and co-construction of knowledge.

Unfortunately, developmentally appropriate practice has often been misunderstood. Many individuals in ECE have interpreted the *NAEYC guidelines* as a curriculum. However, developmentally appropriate practice "is not a curriculum, it is not a rigid set of standards that dictate practice. Rather, it is a framework, a philosophy, or an approach to working with young children" (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1992, p. 4). In addition, some have interpreted the *NAEYC guidelines* as tools to infer exact techniques and practices (see Dawson, Koplewicz & Jack, 2008). However, the concept of a continuum of appropriate practices precludes any categorical inclusion of particular techniques and practices.

Behavioral Techniques and Practices

Behavioral theory holds the behaviors acquired and displayed by young children can be attributed almost exclusively to their environment. Behaviorists believe that by improving children's environments and selecting appropriate teaching practices and materials young children can be taught to develop almost any competency (Peters, Milnerová, & Yonke, 1986; Schlos & Smith, 1998). Behavioral theorists assert that all behavior is conditioned between antecedent and consequent events and that the nature and quality of these events determines future behaviors (Coughlin, Kaslow, & Mahoney 1976; Kaslow, 1994; Peters et al., 1985; Schlos & Smith, 1998). Thus, they suppose, you can engineer behavior changes in children's development by the child, school, and even society by simply managing the environment of children.

The extension of experimental methods of behavioral theory to applied settings, such as the classroom, has generated a relatively new area of research known as applied behavior analysis (Baer, Wolf & Risley, 1968; Kaslow, 1977, 1994). Applied behavior analysis was first identified by Baer, Wolf, and Risley in the first *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis* in 1968 (Kaslow, 1977, 1994). Specifically, Baer, Wolf, and Risley (1968) defined applied behavior analysis as the "process of applying systematic behavior principles of behavior to the improvement of specific behavior and continuously evaluating whether or not any changes observed indeed attributable to the process of application" (p. 91). Baer and colleagues' definition explicitly distinguished applied behavior analysis from previous basic research, both in terms of methodology and substance (Kaslow, 1977). Historically, applied behavior analysis has been grounded in Watson's and Pavlov's behavior theories, which hold that all behaviors are merely learned responses to environmental stimuli. However, applied behavior analysis draws

often that use of respondent conditioning, operant conditioning, and model learning (Brown, Pressinsky, & Smith, 1995; Schries & Smith, 1998).

Applied behavior analysis is generally concerned with increasing or decreasing specific behaviors and then maintaining those behavioral changes under various environmental conditions (Doris & Rapp, 1983; Kazdin, 1977, 1994; Martin & Pear, 1984; Schries & Smith, 1998). Surprisingly, only 7% of the field of applied behavior analysis is concerned with reducing maladaptive behavior (Doris & Rapp, 1983; Rapp, 1980). However, this area still remains of vital interest to many researchers. Reducing maladaptive behaviors is one of primary concern to clinicians and teachers. Applied behavior analysis concerned with reducing maladaptive behavior usually involves one of three principles: reinforcement, extinction, or punishment (Schries & Smith, 1998). Traditionally, punishment procedures have been widely used to reduce inappropriate behaviors. However, in recent years, numerous complex legal and ethical issues have arisen regarding the use of these procedures (Doris & Rapp, 1983; Kazdin, 1979; Kazdin, 1984; Martin & Pear, 1988; Polgarini & Smith, 1993; Schries & Smith, 1998). As a result, researchers have sought to develop less controversial alternative methods of reducing behaviors through the application of reinforcements. Such procedures have been referred to as positive reduction behaviors or reinforcement based reduction procedures (Doris & Rapp, 1980). In addition to avoiding many of the controversial issues surrounding the application of aversive reduction techniques, positive reduction techniques frequently result in the application of the principles of applied behavior analysis, as they focus on reinforcing improved behavior (Doris & Rapp, 1983). Furthermore, there has been a recent emphasis on using extinction based techniques,

rather than consequences based methods. Leading professionals in focus have on the manipulation of consequences that has been typical of behavioral techniques and practices (Kerns et al., 1990). These stimulus based methods focus on the conditions that occur immediately before the target behavior (Wolery, Bailey, & Sugai, 1988). These stimulus based methods are considered less controversial than traditional behavioral methods.

Applied Behavior Analysis in the Early Childhood Classroom

Applied behavior analysis is frequently used by many professionals in education including those in early childhood settings (e.g., teachers, guidance counselors, school psychologists, Gargler, 1977; Schlos & Smith, 1998). In fact, applied behavior analysis has been applied more in classrooms than in any other setting (Kazdin, 1992). In the stages of its development, research has continuously demonstrated that applied behavior analysis techniques and practices are successful in public school settings with diverse populations, including preschool, elementary, secondary, collegiate, and children with special needs (Gargler & Brown, 1989; Kazdin, 1977-1981; Martin & Pear, 1994; Mowin & Baumaner, 1987; Schlos & Smith, 1998). Because applied behavior analysis has been demonstrated as effective in preventing and correcting problematic behaviors in the classroom setting, valuable limitations have increased as teachers no longer have to interrupt, postpone, or delay lessons to deal with problematic behaviors (e.g., students not completing assignments, failing to follow directions, instructions, arguing, fighting, Schlos & Smith, 1998).

Advantages for Classroom Application

Behavioral theory and applied behavior analysis techniques and practices offer many distinct advantages over other frequently used models (e.g., psychoanalysis,

method) applied/implemented in the classroom (Kazdin, 1997; Schloss & Smith, 1994). Applied behavior analysis techniques and procedures can be used by most school personnel. Training of personnel to implement applied behavior analysis can usually be accomplished quickly and easily through coursework and supervised practice, and the resources necessary to implement these techniques are normally minimal and readily available (Schloss & Smith, 1994; Wolery, 1994). Applied behavior analysis also requires a continual evaluation process. During this evaluation process the value of techniques, procedures, and materials being used are assessed. Those evaluation findings that reflect use of ineffective and undesirable techniques, procedures, and materials are revised or discarded (Schloss & Smith, 1994).

Concerns for Classroom Application

Although the merits of behavior analysis techniques and procedures in classroom settings have been widely recognized, not every scenario in which applied behavior analysis has been implemented, there has been consensus related to its use (Schloss & Smith, 1994). Some professionals, including those at ECSE and ECDEL, view applied behavior analysis techniques and procedures as "inappropriate" (Stern et al., 1992). In fact, there has been an ongoing debate on the appropriateness of applied behavior analysis techniques and procedures among professionals in various early childhood settings (Stern et al., 1992).

Some professionals argue that each individual has the right to choose how to behave. Therefore, applied behavior analysis techniques and procedures that attempt to change an individual's behavior are an invasion of his or her own free will (Martin & Pear, 1994; Schloss & Smith, 1994). Martin and Pear (1994) provided an eloquent response to this concern by pointing out that changing a student's behavior is the major

goal of education. It is doubtful that anyone would argue that it is inappropriate to teach a child to add or subtract, which is a form of behavior change.

Some educators recommended more specific techniques and practices related to applied behavior analysis. While this may be of legitimate concern, these fears can be allayed by careful consideration of the student's age, the severity and frequency of the problem, the previous efforts that have failed to solve it, and the possible effectiveness of the technique in solving the problem. Furthermore, techniques and practices should be monitored and evaluated continuously (Schloss & Smith, 1998). Failure to carefully monitor and evaluate techniques can result in the misuse of behavioral techniques and practices. For example, it would be inappropriate to "control" children by only utilizing behavioral techniques and practices rather than providing meaningful, developmentally appropriate activities that engage children.

Finally, some have described applied behavior analysis techniques and practices, such as reinforcement, as bribery (Kazdin, 1973; Kyles, 1993; Schloss & Smith, 1998; Papaja, 1999). These individuals argue that students should not have to be paid to behave or complete assignments, but rather that students should do these things because they are the right thing to do (Schloss & Smith, 1998; Stachowiak, Pajon, Stachowiak, & Pajon, 1993; Salmer, Asanoff & Meyer, 1997). Kazdin (1973) argued that individuals who confuse reinforcement and bribery do not clearly understand the definition and intent of each thing:

Bribery refers to the illicit use of rewards, gifts, or favors to pervert judgment or corrupt the conduct of someone. While bribery, viewed in this way, is the purpose of changing behavior, but the behavior is corrupt, illegal or unethical in some way. With reinforcement, as typically employed, rewards are delivered for behaviors which are generally agreed upon to benefit the client, society, or both. (p. 28)

Bandura suggested suggests that there are close relationships between history and giving reinforcement for appropriate behaviors. Zappella and Melloy (1993) further suggest that, if not taken to great children like a mission during appropriate behaviors, that likely that they will try to get attention with inappropriate behavior. Infant would agree that children behave themselves and complete tasks because it is the right thing to do, however, all acknowledge that some children require assistance in learning to do this. Bandura's one evidence that learning first tone (Feldman & Smith 1998). In fact, the use of behavior techniques and practices, such as reinforcement, does not preclude FCE and FCE education from providing children with a developmentally appropriate classroom (see Bandura & Cappella, 1994) that is fun, engaging, and exciting (Walery, 1994).

In addition to the above concerns, Lippert & Greene (1975) argued that reinforcing educational performance with rewards negatively impacts on students intrinsic motivation (see also Greene & Lippert 1974a, 1974b). In particular, they criticized the use of tangible rewards for this very reason. Lippert and Greene (1975) conducted a series of experiments, in parallel and elementary classrooms, that "tested the effects of offering a child a tangible reward to engage in an initially interesting task on his subsequent intrinsic motivation to engage in that task in the absence of any expectation of external rewards" (p. 214; see also Greene and Lippert 1974a, 1974b). The results of these experiments suggested that the use of external rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation (Lippert & Greene, 1975). However, a meta-analytic review (Cameron & Patten 1994) of the literature on rewards and intrinsic motivation has identified Lippert and Greene's conclusion that intrinsic motivation is reduced by rewards, at least when such rewards are made contingent on performance or given

unexpectedly (Cameron & Perra, 1994, 1995; Gaubier & Cameron, 1996, 1998).

Thus, expected rewards which are not contingent on performance may have a negative effect on intrinsic motivation (Cameron & Perra, 1994, 1995; Gaubier & Cameron, 1996, 1998). According to Cameron and Perra (1994) meta-analysis of over 20 years of research, a tangible reward system that is contingent on performance will not have a negative effect on children's intrinsic motivation. In fact, results of their meta-analysis, including all relevant studies on the topic, indicated that external rewards can be used to increase or enhance intrinsic motivation in children. These results already suggested that the negative effects of rewards occur under very limited conditions such as when tangible rewards are given without regard to level of performance.

Behavioral Reinforcement

The principles of reinforcement, extinction, and punishment are the working tools of the early childhood professional in creating and implementing appropriate behavior techniques and practices (Bellini & Smith, 1998). Understanding these principles and how to use them appropriately is both a first step in understanding the effectiveness that applied behavior analysis has for use in the school setting.

Reward systems

Reinforcement is one of the primary tools of applied behavior analysis. Two types of reinforcement – positive and negative – are to strengthen behaviors (Coughlin et al., 1976; Perra et al., 1986; Bellini & Smith, 1998). A particular behavior is said to be positively reinforced when the behavior is followed by the presentation of a reinforcer (e.g., praise, money) which increases the frequency of that particular behavior (Coughlin et al., 1976; Martin & Pear, 1984; Perra et al., 1986; Bellini & Smith, 1998). Positive reinforcement may be used to strengthen a variety of behaviors. In contrast, negative

teachers generally attempt to provide the desired behavior by ensuring something unpleasant (e.g., removing an argument, removing an inferior grade). Reinforcement is also an effective method for reducing inappropriate behavior by reinforcing positive alternatives to the undesired behavior (Nelson & Schanckman, 1981). Research has demonstrated that young children's behavior, appropriate and inappropriate, increases when they are positively reinforced (Wolery, 1994). Best practice dictates that teachers use a variety of reinforcement procedures to reward and encourage students (Schloss & Smith, 1994). Furthermore, reinforcement is effective in supporting children's development and learning in the early childhood classroom (Wolery, 1994).

There are several types of reinforcers that are frequently used by early childhood teachers. Generally, reinforcers can be placed within one of three categories: social, sensory, and tangible.

Social Reinforcers. Teachers employ social reinforcers when they use interpersonal interactions as a reinforcer (Schloss & Smith, 1994). Social reinforcers can be verbal or nonverbal (Silber & Thomas, 1986; Nelson, Asarnoff & Mayer, 1991). Some examples of commonly used social reinforcers include praise, hugs, smiles, and pats on the back. Research has demonstrated that social reinforcers are very effective when used appropriately (Nelson, Asarnoff & Mayer, 1991). One of the major advantages of social reinforcers is that they are convenient, pleasant, and not very expensive (Silber & Thomas, 1986; Nelson, Asarnoff & Mayer, 1991). In addition, social reinforcers can be easily paired with other types of reinforcers such as sensory and tangible (Nelson, Asarnoff & Mayer, 1991). Social reinforcers are the most frequently employed type of reinforcer

in early childhood classrooms. Furthermore, teachers deploy this stimulus to tangential reinforcers than activity or tangible reinforcers (Galvin, Asmus & Meyer, 1992).

Activity Reinforcers. Teachers employ activity reinforcers when they use access to an enjoyable activity as a reinforcer (Galvin-Asmus & Meyer, 1992). Some examples of commonly used activity reinforcers include free playground time, hang-around help or any other special privilege (Galvin-Asmus & Meyer, 1991). When teachers utilize activity reinforcers they employ a "special" activity immediately following the behavior they want to increase. Activity reinforcers are the second most frequently employed reinforcer in the early childhood classroom (Allison & Treisman, 1990). This is because they are less expensive and more noticeable than tangible reinforcers (Galvin-Asmus & Meyer, 1991).

Tangible Reinforcers. Teachers employ tangible reinforcers when they use any material or edible item as a reinforcer (Galvin, 1990). Some commonly used tangible reinforcers in early childhood settings include small prizes, tokens, toys, stickers, candy and various foods. Tangible reinforcers are often the most powerful type of reinforcer in fact, when used appropriately they almost always guarantee immediate success (Allison & Treisman, 1990). (Luby, Priden, & Dene, 1997) even when used activity reinforcers have been unsuccessful. Furthermore, tangible reinforcers can be used to modify a variety of behaviors. Unfortunately, tangible reinforcers are very expensive and often require more teacher time and commitment than social and activity reinforcers. As a result, the use of tangible reinforcers with young children has been highly controversial. They are frequently used as a "last resort" or limited to children with severe behavior problems (Fungles, Fox, & Schuman, 1997). When used, tangible reinforcers should be

parent with social reinforcement. Eventually, what the desired behavior is achieved the tangible reinforcer will then be gradually faded out and the social reinforcement will be the only reinforcer employed.

Punishment

Punishment is another tool used in applied behavior analysis. The technical definition of punishment differs substantially from the everyday use of the term (Schloss & Smith, 1999; Kazdin, 1994). Punishment is typically defined as providing an unpleasant consequence following undesirable behavior (Schloss & Smith, 1999). However, the technical definition includes an additional requirement, that the frequency of the response must be decreased (Kazdin, 1994). "Punishment in the technical sense of defined solely by the effect on behavior" (Kazdin, 1994, p. 31). It is extremely important that individuals using this technique understand the difference between the technical and popular definitions (Kazdin, 1994; Schloss & Smith, 1999). Just as there are two kinds of reinforcement, positive and negative, there are also two different kinds of punishment: positive and negative (Coughland et al., 1976). A particular behavior is said to be positively punished when the behavior is followed by the presentation of a punisher (e.g., yelling) that decreases the frequency of that particular behavior. Its contrast, negative punishment, is used to increase the desired behavior by removing something pleasant (e.g., time-out) (Cassano, 1991; Coughland et al., 1976; Fennell et al., 1945; Schloss & Smith, 1999). It is important to note the difference between positive and negative punishment, as they are frequently confused (Coughland et al., 1976). When used appropriately, punishment can be highly effective. However, there are several side effects from punishment that have caused its use in applied settings to be questioned. Some possible side effects include increased emotional responding, involvement of the punishing agent,

and creation of the use of punishment (Coughlin et al. 1998). Furthermore, the ethical use of punishment has been discussed extensively (Sellers & Smith, 1998).

Extinction

Extinction is a test that yields a comparison with reinforcement to achieve the desired objectives of applied behavior analysis. By discontinuing reinforcers, the effect of the reinforcement on the target behavior is isolated and eventually extinguished over time (Kazdin, 1994; Milten & Pines, 1988; Sellers & Smith, 1998). School personnel frequently use extinction to reduce inappropriate and off-task behaviors, particularly when the reinforcers for such maladaptive behavior can be isolated and controlled (Poliquin & Smith, 1983). For example, some children engage in maladaptive behavior to attract attention to themselves. If the reinforcer of that behavior, attention, is discontinued, the predicted result would be less of the maladaptive behavior. The discontinuance of the reinforcer may be accomplished by the teacher ignoring the children's behavior. Extinction can then be an important test for the interventionist in choosing strategies for applied behavior analysis.

Conclusion

In recent years, behavioral techniques and processes have been largely criticized by many ECE professionals and have frequently been labeled as developmentally inappropriate (see Ganss et al., 2000). However, many of these professionals have failed to recognize that some of the most effective and widely used techniques and positions in ECE settings are grounded in behaviorist theory (Barnes et al., 1995; Wolery, 1994; see also Ganss & Stevens, 1989; Kazdin, 1977, 1985; Milten & Pines, 1988; Milten & Ingemann, 1987; Sellers & Smith, 1998). Furthermore, as reflected in the EAP guidelines (Bredenkamp, 1987; Bredenkamp & Copple, 1997), the appropriateness of

various techniques and practices is measured on a continuum. Therefore, empirical evaluation of one type of technique or practice is inconsistent with developmentally appropriate practices.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate preschool teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices, specifically behavioral techniques and practices in ECT, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs, and to compare the beliefs between these three groups for the purpose of identifying significant similarities and differences. Specifically, the current study will address the following questions:

1. What beliefs do preschool teachers in ECT, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs hold about developmentally appropriate practices?
2. Are there significant differences in beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices between preschool teachers in ECT, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs?
3. Are there statistically significant and explanatory relationships between beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and individual characteristics (e.g., chronological age, years of experience) of early childhood preschool teachers?
4. What beliefs do preschool teachers in ECT, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs hold about the use of behavioral techniques and practices?

1. Are there significant differences in beliefs about behavioral techniques and processes between preservice teachers in DCE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs?
2. Are there statistically significant and noteworthy relationships between beliefs about behavioral techniques and processes and individual characteristics (e.g., chronological age, years of experience) of early childhood preservice teachers?

The study of beliefs between preservice teachers attending DCE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs on such topics as developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and processes should help researchers to explore possible areas for preservice teacher preparation-program improvement and to understand and identify differences in professional practices. While much remains to be studied about teachers' beliefs and practices, this study will augment the knowledge base and assist others in developing approaches to teacher preparation that are based on actual data and sound theory.

CHAPTER 5 METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Participants, Sampling Procedures, & Setting

Participants in the study were 333 preservice teachers attending 34 different colleges and universities throughout the United States (Midwest = 2, Northeast = 3, South = 8, Southwest = 1, West = 1). The sample consisted of 142 preservice teachers attending early childhood education (ECE) teacher preparation programs, 33 preservice teachers attending early childhood special education (ECSE) teacher preparation programs, and 58 preservice teachers attending unified-early childhood (Unified) teacher preparation programs. For the purpose of this study, students receiving dual certification in ECE and ECSE were placed in the Unified group for purposes of study. Table 1 summarizes the participants' programs of study by university.

Description of Programs

The classification of the various programs of study at these universities into three general categories was based on each participant's description of their individual program. However, the principal investigator conducted a preliminary analysis of the curriculum content of each of these programs for purposes of comparison. Specifically, upper-division courses were classified into curriculum content areas using a modified version of a questionnaire developed by Kemple (1994) (Appendix A). Unfortunately, course descriptions were not available from all of the participating universities. Therefore, the principal investigator classified all courses solely on descriptions. The information presented in Table 2 is solely for informational purposes and no conclusions

were driven by the principal investigator regarding the content and delivery of the program. Further analysis of the data is beyond the scope of this study.

Individual Participant Characteristics

Participants ranged in age from 18 to 44 years ($M = 32$, $SD = 7$), and 88% were female. Of the total participants, 88% described themselves as White, 2% as Hispanic, 4% as Black, and 7% as Other. Most (55%) of the participants were nurses, 42% physicians, 1% pharmacists, and 1% freshmen. Ninety-three percent of the participants had at least one prior field placement in the first of the study. A summary of the participants' demographics and placement history, as well as current year of study in their program, is included in Table 3. Chi Square analyses were not conducted because there were too few cases per cell. Too few cases per cell adversely affect the stability of the statistic (Agresti, 1980).

Table 1

Participating Programmed Study in University

University	Number of Participants		
	Early Childhood Education	Early Childhood Special Education	Infant Early Childhood Education
Auburn University	18	8	0
East Tennessee State University	0	14	8
Florida Gulf Coast University	18	0	0
Florida State University	18	0	0
Louisiana State University	14	0	8
San Francisco State University	0	3	8
University of Delaware	10	3	8
University of Florida	0	0	14
University of Illinois	10	0	8
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	0	0	3
University of South Florida	48	0	8
University of Tennessee	8	3	3
University of Wisconsin	8	0	3
Total Sites	0	0	8

Table 2

Number of Reported Outcomes for Each Program Element

University	Program Type	Child Growth Assessments & Learning	Family & Community Involvement	Contraception	Health, Safety & Injuries	Early Childhood Nutrition	Young Couples with Special Needs	Family Involvement (parenting, bonding, literacy)	Other
Arizona State University	IC: Child Growth (ages 2)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
East Tennessee State University	IC: Child Growth (ages 2)	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Florida Gulf Coast University	IC: Child Growth (ages 2)	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
Florida State University	IC: Child Growth (ages 2)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Louisiana State University	IC: Child Growth (ages 2)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
San Jose State University	IC: Child Growth (ages 2)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

IC: Infant program to support under three infants' growth

IC: Infant program to support under three infants' growth

IC: Infant program to support under three infants' growth

IC: Infant program to support under three infants' growth

Table 3

Participants' Demographics, Placement History, and Latest Year of Study by Program
 (200)

	Early Childhood Education	Early (Childhood) Special Education	Unified Early Childhood	Total
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Gender				
Male	4 (1.7%)	1 (2.0%)	1 (2.0%)	6 (3.7%)
Female	208 (98.3%)	58 (98.0%)	74 (98.0%)	340 (97.3%)
Not Reported	8 (3%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	1 (2%)
Reported Disability				
None	222 (99.7%)	52 (99.4%)	61 (98.3%)	335 (98.7%)
Disputed	8 (3.7%)	1 (2.0%)	8 (9.8%)	16 (4.7%)
Black	7 (2.9%)	1 (2.0%)	1 (6.4%)	11 (3.1%)
Other	4 (1.7%)	1 (2.0%)	1 (2.0%)	7 (2.0%)
Not Reported	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.0%)	1 (0%)
Year in Program				
Senior	142 (58.7%)	24 (58.7%)	30 (38.5)	196 (55.7%)
Junior	55 (26.7%)	8 (22.9%)	44 (61.3%)	107 (30.3%)
Sophomore	4 (1.7%)	0 (2.0%)	0 (0%)	4 (1.1%)
Freshman	1 (0%)	2 (5.7%)	0 (0%)	3 (0.9%)
Age				
Average	22	28	21	22
Range	18-42	20-46	19-26	18-46
Latest Teaching Setting				
Noncharter	127 (52.3%)	8 (19%)	16 (17.9%)	148 (39.7%)
Special Education	4 (2.1%)	23 (68.7%)	0 (0.0%)	27 (6.9%)
Inclusive	98 (44.2%)	12 (34.7%)	25 (66.7%)	135 (38.2%)
Not Reported	4 (2.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (1.1%)

Instrumentation

Teacher Beliefs Scale (TBS)

The Teacher Beliefs Scale (TBS) was originally developed by Charlesworth et al. (1993) to reflect the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) guidelines first published in *Young Children* (1990). Because the original study was a pilot study, the scale was further developed and revised by Charlesworth, Hart, Burt, Thompson et al. (1993). During this revision, a few items were eliminated because they did not load on any component in the first principal components analysis, and the TBS was updated to reflect changes in the (NAEYC) guidelines published in 1997 (Friedlander, 1997; Charlesworth, Hart, Burt, Thompson et al., 1993).

The first section of the scale asks respondents to rate a number of important the amount of influence various school professionals, state regulations and parents have on the way a teacher plans and implements instruction. The remainder of the questionnaire consists of 36 items related to developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate belief statements. Participants use a Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not Important At All) to 5 (Extremely Important) (Charlesworth, Hart, Burt, Thompson et al., 1993). Twenty-five of the items on the TBS represent developmentally appropriate beliefs and 11 of the items represent developmentally inappropriate beliefs. Developmentally inappropriate items are reverse scored during data analysis. All of the TBS items represent areas of kindergarten instruction specified in the NAEYC Guidelines (Friedlander, 1997; Charlesworth, Hart, Burt, Thompson et al., 1993).

To measure the construct validity of the TBS, as reported by the developers of the questionnaire (Charlesworth, Hart, Burt, Thompson et al., 1993), the questionnaire responses were supported by the results of classroom observations using the Instructional

Agreement Index (LAI). Only participants who selected the classroom observation Using the LAI, participants were observed for a minimum of 3 hours on 2 different days. The results of the observation were compared with the participants' responses to the TBS (Charlton-Smith, Hart, Hart, Thompson et al., 1993).

To ensure construct validity, the developers of the TBS conducted a principal components analysis after the questionnaires had been administered to 204 early childhood teachers. The principal component analysis revealed six components: developmentally inappropriate activities and materials, appropriate social, appropriate individualisation, appropriate literacy, appropriate integrated curriculum beliefs, and inappropriate curriculum with expectations greater than one. These six components accounted for approximately 55.5% of the item variance (Charlton-Smith, Hart, Hart, Thompson et al., 1993).

Internal consistency was described using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The following levels of internal consistency were obtained for items comprising the six components: 0.71, 0.79, 0.61, 0.65 and 0.81 respectively (Charlton-Smith, Hart, Hart, Thompson et al., 1993). Internal consistency for the total scale was not reported by Charlton-Smith, Hart, Hart, Thompson et al. (1993).

Behaviour Beliefs Scale (BBS)

The Behaviour Beliefs Scale (BBS) (Appendix B) was developed by the principal investigator for the purpose of this study. The scale consists of 10 items that are presented in three sections. Section I consists of 3 items related to demographic and educational background information, Section II includes 23 items related to belief statements about behaviour techniques and practices using a 5-point Likert scale with points defined (1) = Not Appropriate, 0.5 = All, (3) = Not Very Appropriate, (4) Fairly

Appropriate, (4) Very Appropriate, and (5) Extremely Appropriate. The scale is a 5-point response indicating the level of appropriateness for each teacher belief statement. Section III contains 4 scenarios describing specific behavioral techniques or practices using a 4-point Likert scale with points defined: (1) The technique or practice is very appropriate, (2) The technique or practice is somewhat appropriate, (3) The technique or practice is somewhat inappropriate, and (4) The technique or practice is very inappropriate. For each item respondents indicate the appropriateness of each technique or practice described. In addition, respondents are asked the following questions about each technique or practice presented: (1) Would you use this technique or practice? and (2) Why or why not?

Prior to the study, the instrument was piloted on a sample of 188 preservice teachers. Participants were 11 undergraduate preservice teachers on ECS teacher preparation programs, 19 undergraduate preservice teachers on ECN teacher preparation programs and 58 undergraduate and graduate preservice teachers on Unified teacher preparation programs. During this field test, respondents were asked to identify items that are confusing or posed other problems (see Litoss, 1995). This feedback was to be used for further revision of the questionnaire. However, participants in the study did not provide any suggestions for improvement of the questionnaire.

To ensure the content validity of the BDS, it was critically reviewed for content and wording by the principal investigator (university professor specializing in early childhood education), two university professors specializing in early childhood special education, and a university professor in school psychology specializing in early

established. Numerous revisions were made where necessary to achieve clarity and consistency.

To further assist in instrument development, an exploratory common factor (principal component) analysis was conducted on Section II by the principal investigator using data obtained from a sample of 100 primary teachers. That sample size was considered adequate given the existence of two distinct factors, a relatively small number of variables, and an adequate factor/variable ratio (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1999). The initial solution extracted 5 factors based on Kaiser's eigenvalue greater than one rule (Kaiser, 1962). However, an inspection of the scree plot of eigenvalues suggested retaining two factors (Brennan, 1994). The scree test is generally regarded as superior to the eigenvalue greater than one rule in deciding on the number of factors to extract, particularly when the sample size is relatively small (Gorsuch, 1983; Brennan, 1994). Cronin (1994) recommended one should retain those factors that correspond to the eigenvalues left of the elbow of the scree plot. Because the elbow appears to fall between the 2nd and 3rd eigenvalue, only two factors were retained. The table of eigenvalues and scree plot from the initial solution are shown in Tables 4 and 5, respectively.

The factor matrix was rotated obliquely using a Promax rotation because it was expected that both factors were uncorrelated. Tables 6, 7, and 8 show the obliquely rotated solution for Factor I, Factor II, and items that did not load on either factor on the BSA, respectively.

Table 4

Eigenvalues and Associated Variances for the Rural Principal Area Factor Solution for the Behavioral Beliefs Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	Proportion of Variance	Cumulative Proportion of Variance
1	2.634	17.463	17.463
2	2.443	16.507	33.970
3	1.948	13.084	47.054
4	1.717	11.36	58.414
5	1.403	9.333	67.747
6	1.406	9.336	77.083
7	1.288	8.600	85.683
8	1.126	7.600	93.283
9	1.026	7.044	100.327

Table 3

Some Plots for Subcritical Initial State

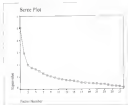


Table 8

Grouping Means for Factor 1 of the Behavioral Beliefs Scale

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	It is _____ for teachers to motivate children's learning and behavior through the careful use of rewards and punishment in the classroom	.446	.125
2	It is _____ for teachers to motivate to change behavior	.412	.064
4	It is _____ for teachers to set clear goals for achievement and share a plan only when a predetermined goal is met	.402	.140
6	It is _____ for teachers to give students prizes (e.g., stickers, toys, tokens) when they work on time	.399	.244
10	It is _____ for teachers to grant special privileges (e.g., line leader) to children who are displaying appropriate behavior	.328	.114
11	It is _____ for teachers to use rewards (e.g., stickers) to enhance children's internal motivation	.440	.028
12	It is _____ for teachers to praise students for appropriate behavior	.445	-.000
13	It is _____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by using rewards (e.g., stickers)	.409	.243
18	It is _____ for teachers to reward the entire class' appropriate behavior by granting extra playtime	.328	.026
20	It is _____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by using praise	.444	-.044

Table 6—continued

25. It is _____ for teachers to reward appropriate behavior with prizes	.786	383
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Extensive Method: Presigned Aides Fostering

Extensive Method: Preman with Career Promotions/Leave

Notes: School teachers' use as indicated

Table 7

Itemized Means for Factor II of the Behavioral Beliefs Scale

Item	Factor I	Factor II
26 It is _____ for teachers to point out and use unpleasant consequences for aggressive behaviors (e.g., hitting) in front of the class	.818	.399
27 It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences to deter future misconduct.	.818	.559
28 It is _____ for teachers to point out inappropriate behaviors (e.g., breaking classroom rules) in front of the class.	.779	.642
29 It is _____ for teachers to take away privileges for breaking the classroom rules.	.749	.576
30 It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences to set an example for other students	.973	.647
31 It is _____ for teachers to publicly rebuke students who let other students.	.648	.496
32 It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences (e.g., name on board) with children who don't follow classroom rules	.783	.498
33 It is _____ for teachers to publicly rebuke students who break classroom rules	.623	.484

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization

Note: Values in boldface are in boldface

Table 8

Structure Matrix for Items Related to Load on Factors I and II of the Behavioural Beliefs Scale

	Item	Factor I	Factor II
3	It is ____ for teachers to give students ready for participating in activities.	.281	.383
6	It is ____ for teachers to sometimes ignore the behavior of all students who are breaking the rules.	.262	.142
7	It is ____ for teachers to sometimes ignore the behavior of students who are displaying aggressive behaviors (e.g. hitting).	.197	.158
17	It is ____ for teachers to use physical contact (e.g. pins, high fives) to let students know they approve of their behavior.	.141	.082
19	It is ____ for teachers to use "time-out" for aggressive behaviors (e.g., hitting, biting).	.142	.036
21	It is ____ for teachers to take away privileges for temper tantrums.	.148	.112
22	It is ____ for teachers to use stickers to let students know they approve of their behavior.	.264	.140
27	It is ____ for teachers to ignore "talking out" behaviors.	.179	.041
28	It is ____ for teachers to use "time-out" for breaking classroom rules.	.129	.159

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization

Note. Values loadings are in boldface

To clarify the latent loadings following oblique rotation, items with factor loadings greater than or equal to .1 (8) were considered to be salient (Nunnally, 1978). The initial 2 factor solution after oblique rotation (evaluated in statistical tests) loadings on one of the 2 factors had 9 items (6, 7, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 27, 28) that failed to load on either factor. One item (3) nearly loaded on both factors, a solution which did not make sense conceptually. Although 3 items (6, 7, 17) did not load on either factor, the principal investigator with a faculty supervisor made the decision to retain those items on the scale because they measured participants' beliefs about correction (historically a third possible factor). Furthermore, a item decided to retain item 15 because of its relatively high loading (.378). From an analysis of the structure matrix, 7 items (3, 17, 19, 21, 23, 27, 28) were removed from the scale. Inspection of the factor correlation matrix indicated that the 2 factors were mildly associated ($r = .244$).

After these items were removed, another common factor (principal component) analysis was conducted and, again, the factor matrix was rotated obliquely. The second 2 factor solution had 3 items (6, 7, 17) that did not saliently load on either factor. These items (6, 7, 17) were the same three migration items that did not load on the initial analysis. The principal investigator along with a faculty supervisor made the decision to keep these items. Examination of the factor solutions indicated that the factors appear to represent beliefs about reinforcement and punishment, respectively.

Factor 1 consisted of 11 items related to beliefs about the use of reinforcement. Therefore, this factor was labeled reinforcement. Factor 2 consisted of 7 items related to beliefs on the use of punishment. Therefore, this factor was labeled punishment. These 2 factors accounted for approximately 22 and 17% of the variance, respectively, with a

total of 24% of the variance explained by the 2. Tables 4 and 10 shows the loadings of the items that make up Factor I and II, respectively. Table 11 shows the loadings of items that did not factor into either Factor I or II.

The internal consistency of the BSB, including Factor I and II, was established through Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Reliability levels of .70 or higher are generally accepted as representing good reliability (Linn & 1991). Cronbach's alpha of the total score on Section II (based on all 22 items) was .81. Alphas for the 2 factors within Section II were .83 for Factor I (mathematics) and .72 for Factor II (generalized). Examination of the individual item total correlations indicated that all items were loaded in the positive direction (e.g., no item is reverse scored any items). These correlations ranged from .14 to .49 indicating much variability in the contributions of each item to the overall reliability of the measure. Alpha for Section II was .49 which suggests unacceptably low reliability. Therefore, it was later dropped from the questionnaire.

During the field phase, 60 preservice teachers were given the BSB two days apart. Test-retest reliability for the total score was calculated on Sections II and III by correlating scores of all questionnaires across 2 administrations. The correlation on Section II (based on all 22 items) was .74. Specifically, the correlations were .23 on Factor I (mathematics) and .49 on Factor II (generalized). The correlation on Section III was .71.

Table 3

Situations Measured for Teacher Effectiveness

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	It is _____ for teachers to motivate children's learning and behavior through the careful use of rewards and punishments in the classroom	.581	.081
2	It is _____ for teachers to use rewards to change behavior	.631	.095
4	It is _____ for teachers to set class goals for achievement and throw a picnic party when a predetermined goal is met	.496	.258
8	It is _____ for teachers to give students prizes (e.g., stickers, tags, medals) who complete their work on time	.648	.212
10	It is _____ for teachers to grant special privileges (e.g., line leader) to children who are displaying appropriate behavior	.548	.124
11	It is _____ for teachers to use rewards (e.g., stickers) to enhance children's (intrinsic) motivation	.619	.077
12	It is _____ for teachers to praise students for appropriate behavior	.688	.102
13	It is _____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by using rewards (e.g., stickers)	.604	.163
14	It is _____ for teachers to reward the entire class appropriate behavior by granting extra play time	.528	.114

Table 4—contd a.i

26. It is ____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by using praise.	.489	.693
27. It is ____ for teachers to reward appropriate behaviour with praise.	.733	.582

Formation Method: Principal Axis Factoring

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation

Note: Values in bold are in boldface

Table 10

Survey: Matrix for Factor II (Punishment)

	Item	Factor I	Factor II
1	It is ____ for teachers to point out and use unpleasant consequences for aggressive behavior (e.g., hitting) in front of the class	.082	.839
9	It is ____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences to bring better classroom	.079	.843
14	It is ____ for teachers to point out unpleasant behavior (e.g., breaking classroom rules) in front of the class	.017	.845
15	It is ____ for teachers to take away privileges for breaking the classroom rules	.246	.879
17	It is ____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences for acts as examples for other students	.081	.899
22	It is ____ for teachers to punish students who do other students	-.015	.987
24	It is ____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences (e.g., notes on board) with children who don't follow classroom rules	0.177	.993
26	It is ____ for teachers to punish students who break classroom rules	-.045	.999

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization

Note: *Values loadings are in boldface

Table 11

Second-Order Matrix for Items Loading to Load on Factor I or II of the Behavioral Beliefs Scale

	Item	Factor I	Factor II
6	It is _____ for teachers to consistently ignore the behavior of students who are breaking the rules.	.172	.248
7	It is _____ for teachers to consistently ignore the behavior of students who are displaying aggressive behaviors (e.g., hitting).	.208	.345
27	It is _____ for teachers to ignore "tough" behaviors.	.254	.281

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Note. Salient loadings are in boldface.

Procedure

The principal investigator identified DCL, ECSE, and Gifted teacher preparation programs from which to obtain possible participants. Next, 71 faculty members of these programs were contacted and asked if they would be willing to recruit possible participants and, then, obtain participant consent and administer the TBS and BBS. Upon obtaining permission from faculty members at 14 different colleges and universities, the principal investigator sent each faculty member a packet of envelopes containing the informed consent form, TBS, and BBS. After participants completed the BBS and the TBS, the questionnaires were returned to faculty members in sealed envelopes and then forwarded to the principal investigator for analysis. Of the 174 questionnaires distributed, 145 (83%) were returned.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Teacher Beliefs Scale

Although the developers of the Teacher Beliefs Scale (TBS) and several subsequent researchers (e.g., Reiser 1999) have calculated reliability estimates for the TBS, the principal investigator estimated the reliability of the TBS based on the responses of the participants in this study. First, the internal consistency of the TBS was established through Cronbach's alpha, a measure of how the individual items complement each other in their measurement of a particular variable. Cronbach's alpha for the TBS (based on items 1-17) was .82. Examination of the individual item total correlations indicated that all items were keyed in a positive direction and ranged from .28 to .56, indicating much variability in the contributions of each item to the overall reliability of the measure. Overall, alpha for the TBS was sufficiently high to suggest that TBS scores could be used with confidence.

Beliefs about Developmentally Appropriate Practices

In order to address what beliefs preschool teachers in GCS, GCML, and Unified teacher preparation programs held about developmentally appropriate practices, scores were computed for items 2-17 of the TBS (item 1 was not included because it did not assess participants' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices). Table 11 shows each group's means for each individual item. A comparison of the mean scores of all three groups for individual items in Table 12 reveals that 29 of the 36 items (e.g., 3, 8, 9, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 21, 22, 24, 27, 28, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37), including the reverse scored

scores, had mean scores of 4.8 or higher, indicating that beliefs were strongly held. Furthermore, inspection of individual item scores by group indicated that mean scores for both the ECE and ECSE groups on 7 individual items ($p < .14$, .88) were 4.0 or higher and mean scores for the ECT group on 3 more individual items ($p < .2$, 4.11) were 4.0 or higher. Generally, the higher mean scores indicated stronger beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices.

Differences in Beliefs About Developmentally Appropriate Practices

In order to address whether there were significant differences in beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices between preschool teachers in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs, an one-way between-subjects Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare the mean scores on the TDB between the three groups to determine if there were significant cross-group differences not attributable to random error. A significant difference was found at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Mean scores on the TDB for all three groups are presented in Table 11. Results of the ANOVA, for the mean scores on the TDB for all three groups are presented in Table 14.

Because an ANOVA involving more than 2 groups does not identify which cross-group differences may be significant, post-hoc comparisons must be done. Holding the familywise Type I error rate constant at $\alpha = .05$, a post-hoc comparison of pairwise group differences utilizing the Tukey procedure revealed significant differences between the ECE and ECSE groups and between the ECE and Unified groups, in their beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. However, no significant differences were observed between the ECSE and the Unified groups in their beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices at the $\alpha = .05$ level. The results of the pairwise comparisons are summarized in Table 14.

Relationships Between Developmentally Appropriate Practices and Individual Characteristics

In order to address whether there were statistically significant and noteworthy relationships between beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and individual characteristics of early childhood teachers, mean DAP total scores were computed for males and females using a *t* test. The results did not suggest any significant relationship between gender and total scores ($t(158) = -1.344, p > .05$). A Pearson product-moment correlation was computed for age and DAP total score and indicated no significant relationship ($r = .148, p = .053$). Finally, an ANOVA was performed to compare the mean scores on the DAP by ethnicity. There were no significant inter-group differences. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 13.

Table 12

Group Means for Individual Teacher Beliefs Scale Items

Item	Early Childhood Education	Early Childhood Special Education	Unified Early Childhood
3. As an evaluation technique in the kindergarten program, standardized group interview _____ *	4.43	3.75	3.48
3. As an evaluation technique in the kindergarten program, teacher observation is _____	4.33	4.63	4.78
4. As an evaluation technique in the kindergarten program, performance on worksheets and workbooks is _____ *	4.05	3.43	3.76
5. It is _____ for kindergarten activities to be responsive to individual differences in development.	4.60	4.34	4.51
6. It is _____ for kindergarten activities to be responsive to individual differences in development.	4.36	4.63	4.49
7. It is _____ that each curriculum area be taught as separate subjects of separate times. *	4.39	4.11	4.14
8. It is _____ for teacher-pupil interactions in kindergarten to help develop children a self-image and positive feelings toward learning.	4.80	4.86	4.88
9. It is _____ for children to be allowed to select many of their own activities from a variety of learning areas that the teacher has prepared (blocks, science center, etc.).	4.34	4.43	4.33

Table 12—continued

10. It is _____ for children to be allowed to cut their own fingers, perform their own steps as an experiment, and plan their own costume drama, art, and writing activities.	4.51	4.29	4.12
11. It is _____ for students to work silently and alone in centers. ^a	4.00	3.39	3.74
12. It is _____ for kindergarten to learn through active exploration.	4.78	4.34	4.53
13. It is _____ for kindergarten to learn through interaction with other children.	4.85	4.83	4.74
14. Worksheets and/or story sheets are _____ in the kindergarten program. ^a	4.28	3.97	4.60
15. Flashcards, pointers, letters and/or words are _____ in the kindergarten program for instructional purposes. ^a	3.54	3.17	3.29
16. The basal reader is _____ in the kindergarten reading program. ^a	3.76	3.08	3.12
17. In terms of effectiveness, it is _____ for the teacher to talk to the whole group and make non-voluntary participants in the same activity. ^a	3.47	3.08	2.98
18. In terms of effectiveness, it is _____ for the teacher to move among groups and individuals, offering suggestions, asking questions, and facilitating children's involvement with materials and activities.	4.71	4.69	4.60
19. It is _____ for teachers to use their authority through threats, rewards, and/or stars to encourage appropriate behavior. ^a	3.18	2.86	2.84

Table 12 (continued)

20	It is _____ for teachers to use their authority through punishment and/or rewards to encourage appropriate behavior. ^a	3.87	3.89	3.92
21	It is _____ for children to be awarded (or punished) only for the classroom.	4.45	4.26	4.29
22	It is _____ for children to be instructed in recognizing the single letters of the alphabet, isolated from words. ^a	3.75	3.69	3.43
23	It is _____ for children to color within pre-defined lines. ^a	3.99	3.69	3.88
24	It is _____ for children in kindergarten to learn letters as strictly as a printed text.	3.46	3.43	3.43
25	It is _____ for children to have stories read to them individually and/or as a group text.	4.72	4.37	4.73
26	It is _____ for children to discuss stories to the teacher.	4.28	4.33	4.68
27	It is _____ for children to not use non-functional print (telephone books, magazines, etc.) and environmental print (postal boxes, potato chip bags, etc.) in the kindergarten classroom.	4.33	4.29	4.32
28	It is _____ for children to participate in dramatic play.	4.73	4.70	4.38
29	It is _____ for children to talk informally with adults.	4.90	4.28	4.89

Table 12—continued

20. It is _____ for children to experiment with writing by creating their own spelling.	4.42	3.91	4.20
21. It is _____ to provide many opportunities to develop social skills with peers in the classroom.	4.65	4.77	4.82
22. It is _____ for kindergarten to learn to read. ^a	2.62	2.89	2.91
23. In the kindergarten program, it is _____ that math be integrated with all the curriculum areas.	3.92	3.58	3.58
24. In teaching health and safety, it is _____ to include a variety of activities throughout the school year.	4.43	4.46	4.42
25. In the classroom setting, it is _____ for the child to be exposed to multicultural and nonsectarian activities.	4.33	4.22	4.28
26. It is _____ that outdoor time have physical activities.	3.27	2.98	2.8
27. Input from parents is _____.	4.30	4.22	4.25

^a Developmentally inappropriate item that was reverse-scored.

Table 13

Mean Total Scores for Teacher Beliefs Scale

	Early Childhood Education	Early Childhood Special Education	Gifted Early Childhood
<i>M</i>	158.27	143.97	142.58

Table 14

Summary ANOVA Table for Teacher Beliefs Scale

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Group	2	1418.275	709.138	10.882 ^a	.000
Error	158	61882.864	392.360		

^a $p < .05$

Table 15

Pairwise Comparisons for Teacher Behavior Scale

Program of Study	Program of Study	Mean Difference	Std. Error	p
Unified	EC	7.3778 ^a	1.7683	.000
	ECSE	-1.8753	2.7933	.919
EC	Unified	7.3778 ^a	1.7683	.000
	ECSE	4.5024 ^a	2.4434	.037
ECSE	Unified	1.0053	2.7933	.949
	EC	4.9834 ^a	2.4434	.037

^a p < .05

Table 16

Summary ANOVA Table for Teacher Behavior Scale Total Scores and Difficulty

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Group	2	114.888	57.444	1.418 ^a	.237
Error	147	6642.648	45.188		

^a p = .05**Behavioral Beliefs Scale**

Although reliability estimates were initially calculated during the development of the Behavioral Beliefs Scale (BBS) based on the pilot study, the principal investigator again estimated the reliability of the BBS based on the data collected for this study.

Again, Cronbach's α was calculated to measure the internal consistency. Cronbach's α for Section II (items 1 through 22) was .79. Alphas for the 2 identified factors within Section II were .73 for Factor 1 (performance) and .72 for Factor 2 (personality). Examinations of the individual item-total correlations indicated that all items were loaded in the positive direction and ranged from .12 to .38, indicating much variability in the contributions of each item to the overall reliability of the measure.

Beliefs about Behavioral Techniques and Practices

In order to address what beliefs (prospective teachers in ECE, PCBE, and Unified teacher preparation programs held about the use of behavioral techniques and practices, mean scores were computed for each group for each of the items contained in Section II of the BBS. Table 16 summarizes the mean scores for each group by item. A comparison of the group means for individual items in Table 17 indicates that all three groups rated 7 items (e.g., 13, 17) as 3 or higher, suggesting that beliefs range from "Very Appropriate" to "Extremely Appropriate." Furthermore, inspection of individual item means by group indicates that both the ECE and Unified groups rated 1 additional item (e.g., 14) as 4 or higher. Inspection of the chart indicates that many additional items were rated as 3's (Partly Appropriate) or higher.

Differences in Beliefs about Behavioral Techniques and Practices

In order to address whether there were significant differences in beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices between prospective teachers in ECE, PCBE, and Unified teacher preparation programs, an one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted to compare the mean scores on the BBS between the three groups to determine if there were significant inter-group differences not attributable to random error. A significant difference was found at the $\alpha = .05$ level on Section II of the BBS and Factor

1) of Section II of the BBS. No significant differences between group means at the $\alpha = .05$ level were found on Factor II (prevalence) of Section II of the BBS, $t(7, 112) = 1.004$, $p > .05$.

2) Mean scores of the BBS on Section II, Factor I (prevalence) of Section II, and Factor II (prevalence) of Section II for each of the three groups are presented in tables 11, 12, 13, 20, respectively. Results of the ANOVAs calculated on the mean scores of the BBS on Section II, Factor I (prevalence) of Section II, and Factor II (prevalence) of Section II for each of the three groups are presented in Tables 21, 22, and 23, respectively.

Because an ANOVA involving more than 2 groups does not identify which pair group differences may be significant, post hoc comparisons must be done. Holding the Bonferroni Type I error rate constant at $\alpha = .05$, a post hoc comparison of pairwise group differences utilizing the Tukey procedure revealed significant differences between the ECT and ECTM groups and between the ECT and Unified groups, in their beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices. However, no significant differences were observed between the ECTM and the Unified groups in their beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices at the $\alpha = .05$ level. The results of the pairwise comparisons are summarized in Table 24.

A post hoc comparison utilizing the Tukey procedure for pairwise comparisons on Factor I (prevalence) of Section II of the BBS revealed significant differences between the ECT and Unified groups and the ECT and ECTM group, in their beliefs about reinforcement. However, no other significant pair group differences were observed for Factor I (prevalence) at the $\alpha = .05$ level. The results of the pairwise comparisons are summarized in Table 25.

His post-test compliance was measured on Factor II (pretreatment) of Section II of the BDI because no sufficient scales (the ANOVA did not reveal any significant differences between the three groups).

Relationships Between Behavioral Techniques and Problem and Individual Characteristics

In order to address whether there were statistically significant and noteworthy relationships between beliefs about behavioral techniques and problem and individual characteristics of early childhood prevention teachers, mean BDI total scores were compared for males and females using a *t*-test. The results did not suggest any significant relationship between gender and total scores ($t(152) = .258$, $p > .01$). A Pearson product-moment correlation was computed for age and BDI total scores and indicated no significant relationship ($r = .236$, $p > .01$). Finally, an one-way between-group ANOVA was performed to compare the mean scores on the BDI by ethnicity. There were no significant inter-group differences. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 2d.

Table 11

Group Means for Individual Behavioral Deficit Scale Items

Item	Group Means		
	Early Childhood Education	Early Childhood Special Education	Graded Early Childhood
1. It is _____ for teachers to meet each student's learning and behavior through the careful use of controls and punishment in the classroom.	2.93	3.09	3.56
2. It is _____ for teachers to use rewards to change behavior.	2.45	3.33	3.34
3. It is _____ for teachers to set class goals for achievement and then to praise partly when a predetermined goal is met.	3.29	3.49	3.94
4. It is _____ for teachers to point out and use unpleasant consequences for aggressive behaviors (e.g., hitting) in front of the class.	1.79	1.74	1.93
5. It is _____ for teachers to sometimes ignore the behavior of students who are breaking the rules.	2.55	2.37	2.34
6. It is _____ for teachers to sometimes ignore the behavior of students who are displaying aggressive behaviors (e.g., hitting).	1.48	1.43	1.33
7. It is _____ for teachers to give students praise (e.g., stickers, toys, incentives) when complete their work on time.	2.40	3.17	2.99
8. It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences to deter future misbehavior.	2.63	2.88	2.88

Table IT—continued

9	It is _____ for teachers to grant special privileges (e.g., first look) to children who are displaying appropriate behaviors.	3.31	3.77	3.60
10	It is _____ for teachers to use rewards (e.g., stickers) to enhance children's internal motivation.	2.84	3.30	3.08
11	It is _____ for teachers to praise students for appropriate behavior.	4.11	4.74	4.43
12	It is _____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by using rewards (e.g., stickers).	3.43	3.79	3.61
13	It is _____ for teachers to punish and inappropriate behavior (e.g., breaking classroom rules) on front of the class.	2.23	2.77	2.51
14	It is _____ for teachers to take away privileges for breaking the classroom rules.	3.38	3.77	3.51
15	It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences to set an example for other students.	2.78	3.34	3.09
16	It is _____ for teachers to reward the entire class appropriate behavior by granting extra play time.	3.68	4.08	4.00
17	It is _____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by using praise.	4.23	4.38	4.48
18	It is _____ for teachers to punish students who hit other students.	1.87	1.17	1.60
19	It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences (e.g., name on board) with children who don't follow classroom rules.	2.24	2.40	2.33

Table 17—continued

20. It is ____ for teachers to reward appropriate behavior with praise.	2.62	2.54	2.23
21. It is ____ for teachers to punish students who break classroom rules.	1.56	1.17	1.61
22. It is ____ for teachers to spend "taking out" behavior.	2.20	2.30	2.09

Table 18

Mean Total Scores for Behavioral Defect Scale—Section II

	Early Childhood Education	Early Childhood Special Education	Unified Early Childhood
M	21.29	44.11	62.44

Table 19

Mean Total Scores for Factor I (Reinforcement) of the Behavioral Defect Scale

	Early Childhood Education	Early Childhood Special Education	Unified Early Childhood
M	14.18	40.29	68.01

Table 20

Mean Scores for Factor A (Placement) of the Educated Beliefs Scale

	Early Childhood Education	Early Childhood Special Education	Unifed Early Childhood
<i>M</i>	13.12	12.81	12.65

Table 21

Summary ANOVA Table for Educated Beliefs Scale – Factor A

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Group	2	3649.769	1824.884	18.325 ^a	.000
Error	152	24937.221	163.728		

^a $p < .05$

Table 12

Summary ANOVA Table for Behavioral Beliefs Scale – Factor I (Behavioral Beliefs) of Section II

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Group	2	2899.140	1449.570	23.318*	.000
Error	352	14544.89	41.320		

* $p < .05$

Table 13

Summary ANOVA Table for Behavioral Beliefs Scale – Factor II (Transformation of Section II)

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Group	2	37.983	18.991	1.854**	.160
Error	352	4475.080	12.713		

** $p < .05$

Table 24

Pairwise Comparisons for Session II of the Underwood Pictorial Scale

Program of Study	Program of Study	Mean Difference	Std. Error	t
Unifed	BCB	5.3587 ^a	1.3888	666
	BCSB	1.4989	1.8763	794
BCB	Unifed	-5.7168 ^a	1.3888	666
	BCSB	-5.1775 ^a	1.4878	650
BCSB	Unifed	1.4889	1.8763	794
	BCB	6.1792 ^a	1.4878	650

^a $p < .05$

Table 25

Pairwise Comparisons for Session I (Reinforcement) of Session II of the Underwood Pictorial Scale

Program of Study	Program of Study	Mean Difference	Std. Error	t
Unifed	BCB	5.6283 ^a	8.175	888
	BCSB	-3.7129	1,3047	978
BCB	Unifed	-1.1263 ^a	8.175	888
	BCSB	-3.4684 ^a	1.3450	888
BCSB	Unifed	.3139	1.3047	978
	BCB	5.4844	1.3450	888

^a $p < .05$

Table 16

Summary ANOVA Table for Behavioral Beliefs Scale Total Scores and Effect Size

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Group	3	294.645	98.215	1.012*	.363
Error	349	32336.198	92.653		

* $p > .05$

Summary

An analysis of the data gathered from each of three teacher preparation programs led to the following findings about preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices. First, the study found that preservice teachers in each of the teacher preparation programs held relatively strong beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. Second, significant differences in beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices were observed between preservice teachers in the OCE and UCSE programs and between the UCSE and Unified programs. However, no significant differences were observed between the UCSE and the Unified groups in their beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. Third, no statistically significant and noteworthy relationships between beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and individual characteristics (i.e., sex, chronological age, ethnicity) of early childhood preservice teachers were observed. Fourth, the study found that preservice teachers in each of the teacher preparation programs did not hold strong beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices. Fifth,

significant differences in beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices were observed between preservice teachers in the ECE and ECSE groups and between the ECE and Unified groups. However, no significant differences were observed between the ECSE and the Unified groups in their beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices. Finally, no statistically significant and noteworthy relationships between beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices and individual characteristics (i.e., sex, chronological age, ethnicity) of early childhood preservice teachers were identified.

CHAPTER 3 DISCUSSION

Introduction

Educational philosophy and practice have historically differed between early childhood education (ECE) and early childhood special education (ECSE) (Bendikson, 1993; Burton et al., 1993; Watery & Walters, 1994), with ECE being traditionally grounded in constructivism and ECSE being traditionally grounded in behaviorism (Smith & Bendikson, 1993, see also Watery et al., 1994; Watery & Walters, 1994). The recent trend towards greater inclusion has increased the number of children with special needs in ECE classrooms, resulting in the need for professionals from a variety of fields to work together. With this greater inclusion has come a blending of techniques and practices from different fields and at other times fusion and total change (Smith & Bendikson, 1993, see also Bendikson, 1993; Carta, 1994; Carta, 1993; Carta et al., 1994; Cattan et al., 1993; Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Johnson & Johnson, 1993; Johnson & Johnson, 1994; Ridge et al., 1994). Some research indicates that teachers initially largely imitate their behavior in the classroom (Boone, 1990; Chadenierich, Hart, Burt, & DeWald, 1993; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Dunn & Kruse, 1987; Hyman, Hirsch-Pasek, & Resnick, 1990; Fung, 1996; Insberg, 1990; Murdy, 1982; Smith, 1993), implying some of the similarities and differences in beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavior techniques and practices among professionals in ECE, ECSE, and unified teacher preparation programs may reside in curriculum development and training.

as well as continuing education for preservice teachers (see Telle, 1994). Moreover, an understanding of such differences may help teacher preparation programs bridge the gap between these traditionally different disciplines. Thus, the first goal of this study was to assess and evaluate ECE, ECEC, and United preservice teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices.

A second goal of this study was the piloting, development, and testing of an instrument used to assess beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices. To this end, the Behavioral Beliefs Scale (BBS) was developed to assess beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices, and its reliability was tested. Moreover, a comparison of responses on the Teacher Beliefs Scale (TBS) between types of preservice teachers was expected to add to the developing body of research surrounding the TBS.

Beliefs About Developmentally Appropriate Practices

An analysis of the data gathered from three types of teacher preparation programs led to three general findings about preservice teachers and their beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. The results of this study suggested that, in general, preservice teachers in each of the three groups held strong beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. The mean scores for a majority of the items, including the re-examined item, were at scores of 4.0 (the practice was very important) with only slight differences in responses by training program type. However, preservice teachers in ECE training programs held the strongest beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices, having mean scores at scores of 4.0 on 25 out of 34 items, suggesting that these preservice teachers have extremely strong beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices.

In addition to the strength of beliefs, significant differences in beliefs were observed between preservice teachers in ECEs, UCEs, and Unified teacher preparation programs. In particular, preservice teachers in ECE teacher preparation programs held significantly different beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices from preservice teachers in UCE and Unified teacher preparation programs. With nearly all of the participants being juniors and seniors (97.7%) in teacher preparation programs, some differences in beliefs may be attributable to differences in training, particularly since no demographic characteristics were determined to have significant relationships with beliefs.

Given that ECE teacher preparation programs have historically been rooted in constructivism, the fact that ECE preservice teachers held stronger beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices than ECE preservice teachers who have not been typically rooted in constructivism was not surprising. Furthermore, as indicated earlier, the *Developmentally Appropriate Practices (DAP)* guidelines were developed and published by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), the largest organization of ECE professionals. It was somewhat surprising that preservice teachers in ECE teacher preparation programs differed significantly from preservice teachers in Unified teacher preparation programs, because Unified teacher preparation programs draw upon philosophy and practice from the field of ECE (Shannon et al., 1992; Gershohl, Huber, & Szwedzko, 1997). It was anticipated that preservice teachers in Unified teacher preparation programs would hold beliefs very similar to those of ECE preservice teachers — that is, strong beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. The observed differences between the two groups suggests that Unified programs may be

more closely mirrored the ECE programs than ECE programs or, alternatively, that ECE programs may simply differ from the others only in the limited ways addressed by this study. Also, the observed differences may have been attributable to the way in which the participating programs were classified or labeled. In addition, what may have been most surprising is how strong ECE program teachers' beliefs were about developmentally appropriate practices. Perhaps the most significant conclusion to be drawn from these unanticipated differences is that further research might be warranted.

The results of this study also suggested that no significant relationships existed between demographic characteristics (gender, age, ethnicity, etc.) and beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. Given this finding, it is possible that observed differences in beliefs were attributable to differences in program type, and that, contrary to one might hypothesize, that individuals in teacher preparation programs have pre-existing beliefs that make them most compatible with the teacher preparation program they select. However, this study tends not to support this hypothesis because most of the data comes from universities with only one type (i.e., ECE/ECEM, or Unified) of early childhood teacher preparation program, suggesting that students could not choose one program over another.

As indicated earlier, a secondary goal of this study was to further investigate the value of a questionnaire used to assess early childhood teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices. While a detailed analysis of the TBS was outside the scope of this study, the TBS was easy to use and was found to have satisfactory reliability, confirming other studies on the TBS (see Charleston, Hart, Davis,

Thompson et al., 1993; Reider, 1997). No significant problems or flaws with the instrument were noted.

Beliefs about Behavioral Techniques and Practices

Unlike the majority of participants' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices, the results from the administration of the BBS suggested that preservice teachers attending all three training programs did not hold extremely strong beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices. Preservice teachers attending all three training programs only endorsed a small number of behavioral techniques and practices as very appropriate to extremely appropriate when comparing the number of endorsed belief statements about developmentally appropriate practices. Only mean scores for 2 out of 22 items were at or near 4 (indicating that the technique or practice was very appropriate), with slight differences in responses by training program type. Specifically, preservice teachers in ECEB and Unified teacher preparation programs on average rated only 1 additional item as very appropriate. Given that ECEB teacher preparation programs have been historically "based" on behaviorism, it was anticipated that more items would be endorsed as very appropriate or extremely appropriate by ECEB preservice teachers. In summary, overall stronger responses (e.g., stronger beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices) were expected of ECEB preservice teachers that were actually observed.

Results of this study further suggested that significant differences existed in preservice teachers' beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices in ECE, ECEB, and Unified Teacher preparation programs. Specifically, beliefs held by preservice teachers in ECE teacher preparation programs differed significantly from beliefs held by preservice teachers in ECEB and Unified training programs. Preservice teachers in ECE

teacher preparation programs did not endorse as many beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices as preservice teachers in ECSE and Unified teacher preparation programs. This finding was anticipated given the historical foundations of the two disciplines (see Smith & Brookkamp, 1998; Wolery et al., 1994; Wolery & Withers, 1994). Unified teacher preparation programs draw upon philosophy and practices from the fields of ECT and ECSE (Hansen et al., 1992; Gagnio, Stoker, & Sonnenbarger, 1997). Therefore, it was not surprising that preservice teachers in Unified teacher preparation programs endorsed more behavioral techniques and practices than those preservice teachers attending ECT teacher preparation programs.

Results of the analysis on each of the two factors on the RBS (i.e., reinforcement and punishment) suggested that there were significant differences in beliefs about reinforcement between the three training programs. Beliefs of preservice teachers in ECT teacher preparation programs differed significantly from those preservice teachers in ECSE and Unified teacher preparation programs. However, there was no significant difference between the three groups in beliefs about punishment. Data analysis indicated that, generally, all three groups did not endorse the use of punishment or unpleasant consequences with young children. In recent years, many forms of punishment in the classroom (i.e., j., paddling, other techniques that might be construed as humiliating) have been discouraged because of liability issues and for ethical reasons (Davis & Rapp, 1993; Kazdin, 1993, 1994; Hansen & Fox, 1988; Pellegrini & Routh, 1990; Robbins & Smith, 1988). Furthermore, the *ECSE Guidelines* also discourage the use of punishment (Brookkamp & Capps, 1993). Perhaps this is their problem and

changes in society's expectations regarding the treatment of children, all three types of teacher education programs have begun to discourage the use of punishment.

Finally, there were no significant relationships between age and beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices, age and beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices, and ethnicity and beliefs about behavioral techniques and practices.

Results of the pilot study on 100 preservice teachers indicated that the BBS has satisfactory reliability. Furthermore, the data gathered on 111 preservice teachers indicated that the BBS has satisfactory reliability and appears to be a promising instrument for use in behavioral beliefs assessment.

Implications for Practice

The results of this study suggest that preservice teachers in ECSE and Unified teacher preparation programs hold similar beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices. However, this study found that preservice teachers in ECE programs held significantly different beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices when compared with preservice teachers in ECSE and Unified teacher training programs.

Given findings of this study and the need towards greater inclusion of young children with special needs in early childhood settings, it is even more important that professionals in the fields of ECE and ECSE work together to identify commonalities and master differences in order to successfully meet the needs of typically and atypically developing children. Teacher education in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs may need to reexamine ways programs can be restructured so that significant differences in training no longer exist between the three program types. Collaboration between these teacher education needs to occur with greater frequency during the

departmentalization of most colleges and schools of education, many of which still maintain physically segregated facilities for different programs (Wien & Hanson, 1999).

The wide range of beliefs evident in this study suggests that the goals of unifying ECE and ECSE education have not been fully realized in the sample institutions participating in this study, particularly at the philosophical level. Perhaps the adage, "old habits die hard" reflects how slowly institutional change occurs compared to theoretical or legal changes. The key to resolving the differences between ECE and ECSE as a meaningful way may be for teacher education to recognize the needs of various philosophical orientations and expose students to them. Unified teacher preparation programs have attempted to do just that by blending the disciplines of ECE and ECSE in a formal way. However, the concept of combining two different disciplines is still relatively new and many Unified programs are still undergoing tremendous change. Similarly, in the classroom, new and emerging roles for ECSE teachers are being developed; many feel that they are working as ECE classrooms or collaborating with ECE teachers more and more (Chen Ingwei & Winkley, 1993).

Assuming that teachers' beliefs do sometimes influence teacher practice, as some research suggests, school district administrators must begin to consider how teachers' beliefs can be modified so that teachers feel comfortable using a wide variety of practices with the children in their class, including developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices. One way administrators may begin to assist teachers in modifying their current beliefs is through training programs. Research concerning the alteration of beliefs has suggested that beliefs are more amenable to change when teachers are shown that particular practices are effective. Therefore, in-service training

described demonstrating the effectiveness of developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices may be a useful tool in attempting to facilitate changes in teachers' beliefs (Dunn & Kooten, 1997). However, failure of the training to demonstrate the effectiveness of the practices may only reinforce existing beliefs.

There is much that remains unknown about teachers' beliefs and how those beliefs influence practice. What has become clear when considering the results of this study is that teacher education must continue to work together across the fields of ECE and ECSE to improve the quality of teaching, classroom management, and outcomes for all children, including those with special needs.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this study is that all beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices were self-reported. Thus, there is no evidence to suggest that participants' actual teaching practices would reflect their reported beliefs. However, there is some research that suggests a moderate relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (Dunn & Kooten, 1997; Charalambous *et al.*, 1993; Hyson *et al.*, 1999).

A second limitation of this study is the relatively small sample ($N = 25$) size of ECSE preservice teachers. The majority of this study's sample consisted of preservice teachers in ECE and unified teacher preparation programs. However, harmonic means were used when means between the three groups were compared.

A third limitation of this study is that the participants' teacher preparation programs were not critically examined and analyzed. Therefore, no clear conclusion can be drawn about the curriculum content of each of the three program types. In addition,

the classification of programs into the three types used in this study is not exact and program type may more appropriately be viewed as a continuum.

A fourth limitation of this study is that the TBS is a relatively new instrument. Although information gathered on reliability and validity are encouraging, additional studies need to be conducted.

Areas of Future Research

Areas of future research might include conducting additional studies investigating preservice teachers' or practicing teachers' beliefs using the TBS. These studies might also include the use of multiple measures (e.g., questionnaires, observations, interviews). The use of multiple measures would provide researchers with insight into the ways in which beliefs relate to teacher practices. Furthermore, it would be interesting to see if the results of this study could be replicated on another sample of preservice teachers attending ECSE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs.

Other areas of future research might also focus on how teachers' beliefs change over time. This might include a study of beliefs of persons entering teacher preparation programs, as well as a study of beliefs held by persons after teaching a few years. The participants in this study could be closely followed during their first few years of teaching. Furthermore, teachers' practices could be measured to see if they are closely aligned with their beliefs.

Future research studies might also consider a relationship between teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices (see Chatterworth, Hart, Hunt, Thompson et al., 1993; Sertan, 1998) and behavioral techniques and practices. The results of such a study could be compared to this study and other studies on the TBS to examine a variety of constructs. This might include examining the relationship between teachers' beliefs

about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices and variables such as educational level, employment area, and years of teaching experience. Also, variables particular to practicing teachers such as demands of the school environment could also be focused into determining the extent that beliefs influence practice. Moreover, conducting a learning training effects between types of programs could be further expanded.

In addition to future research on preservice and in-service teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices, research evaluating the behavioral teacher education in ECE, ECSE, and Unified teacher preparation programs is also warranted. Such research may further develop whether observed differences in preservice teachers' beliefs are attributable to differences in training. Moreover, such research may further develop why differences in beliefs between preservice teachers in ECE, ECSE and Unified programs were found to exist.

As discussed in Chapter 3, research suggests that teachers' practices are not always reflective of their beliefs. Research aimed at understanding the conditions and reasons for such divergence may be useful in understanding how to encourage the use of developmentally appropriate practices and behavioral techniques and practices, despite a wide variety of beliefs concerning those practices. Furthermore, research into teacher motivation and compensation may also contribute to this field of study.

APPENDIX A
EARLY CHILDHOOD PROGRAMS DESCRIPTION — MODIFIED
QUESTIONNAIRE

University or College _____

- A. Child Growth, Development, and Learning (Principles of child growth and development, developmental diversity: psychological foundations of early childhood (ECE))**

Course Title

- B. Family and Community Relations (Understanding of the role of the family and community; ability to cooperate with the family and community systems)**

Course Title

- III Curriculum Development, Content, and Implementation/Planning and implementing; evaluating appropriate content and methods; selecting materials; creating the learning environment; planning for special needs; observing, recording and assessing behavior)**

Course Title

- IV Health, Safety, and Welfare (Promote health; maintain, and safety management procedures; health appraisal and referral; identification and correction of hazards)**

Course Title

- V. **Early Childhood Provisions:** (Values issues and legal issues, delivery philosophy of ECT, historical, philosophical, and social foundations of ECT, working with colleagues: assessing growth and development)

Course Title

- VI. **Young Children with Special Needs**

Course Title

VII Young Children with Special Needs

Course Title

VIII Field Experiences

Supervised practicum as a classroom assistant prior to student teaching (student is closely supervised by a college/university supervisor and there is planned communication between college/university supervisor and staff at the practicum site)

Supervised student teaching (student is closely supervised by a college/university supervisor and there is planned communication between the college/university supervisor and the staff in the practicum site)

IX Other program requirements

13. Does your institution operate on a quarter system or semester system (please indicate)

QUARTER

SEMESTER

14. What is the title of the program which you have just described?

15. What is the name of the department in which the program is offered?

16. Is this department part of the school or college within your institution (e.g. College of Education, College of Consumer and Family Science)? If so, please name

17. Is the early childhood teacher preparation program which you have just described (please check)

_____ Regular Early Childhood

_____ Early Childhood Special Education

_____ Combined Early Childhood and Early Childhood Special Education

APPENDIX B
BEHAVIORAL BELIEFS SCALE (BBS)

Your professional competence in navigating the questionnaire will help all situations point to the understanding of preservice teachers' behavioral beliefs and techniques and practices within many early childhood settings. This is not a test. It is a questionnaire. Your opinion will be strictly confidential. Please give an independent reaction to each item.

Name: _____

Please respond to each item

1. Your program of study (check one)

- ☐ Unified (combined) Early Childhood Education and Early Childhood Special Education
☐ Early Childhood Education
☐ Early Childhood Special Education
☐ Other (please describe) _____

2. How would you describe your current program (check one)

- ☐ Freshman
☐ Sophomore
☐ Junior
☐ Senior
☐ Graduate Student in Master's or a 1st Year Postgraduate Program
☐ Graduate Student in Master's Certification Program
☐ Other (please describe) _____

3. How old _____

4. The grade level at which you have had field placements (check all that apply)

- ☐ None
☐ Preschool
☐ Kindergarten
☐ First Grade
☐ Second Grade
☐ Third Grade
☐ Other (please describe) _____

5. The grade level you ideally would like to teach (check one)

- ☐ Preschool ☐ First Grade ☐ Third Grade
☐ Kindergarten ☐ Second Grade ☐ Other (please describe) _____

2. Is sitting you clearly. Mark each (circle one)

____ Mainstream Regular Education ____ Special Education ____ Inclusion

1. Your sex (circle one) M F

2. Your ethnicity (check one)

____ White ____ Black ____ Other (please describe) _____
 ____ Hispanic ____ American Indian

+++++-----

Please complete the rest of the questionnaire by circling the response to the following statements with the most nearly reflects YOUR FEELINGS. Each item has five appropriate responses to the item at each childhood setting.

	1 Not Appropriate at All	2 Not Very Appropriate	3 Fairly Appropriate	4 Very Appropriate	5 Extremely Appropriate
1. It is ____ for teachers to motivate children's listening and behavior through the careful use of rewards and punishment in the classroom				1	2 3 4 5
2. It is ____ for teachers to use rewards to change behavior				1	2 3 4 5
3. It is ____ for teachers to set clear goals for achievement and there is great pride when a predetermined goal is met				1	2 3 4 5
4. It is ____ for teachers to point out and use unpleasant consequences for aggressive behaviors (e.g., hitting) in front of the class				1	2 3 4 5
5. It is ____ for teachers to sometimes ignore the behavior of students who are breaking the rules				1	2 3 4 5
6. It is ____ for teachers to ignore more serious behavior of students who are displaying aggressive behaviors (e.g., hitting)				1	2 3 4 5
7. It is ____ for teachers to give students praise (e.g., student legs broken) when a complete child meets all goals				1	2 3 4 5
8. It is ____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences in their home environment				1	2 3 4 5
9. It is ____ for teachers to give special privileges (e.g., free lunch) to children who are displaying appropriate behavior				1	2 3 4 5
10. It is ____ for teachers to use rewards (e.g., stickers) to enhance children's optimal motivation				1	2 3 4 5
11. It is ____ for teachers to praise students for appropriate behavior				1	2 3 4 5

1 Not Appropriate at all	2 Not Very Appropriate	3 Slightly Appropriate	4 Very Appropriate	5 Extremely Appropriate	
12. It is _____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by encouraging (e.g., student)	1	2	3	4	5
13. It is _____ for teachers to point out inappropriate behavior (e.g., breaking classroom rules) in front of the class	1	2	3	4	5
14. It is _____ for teachers to take away privileges for breaking the classroom rules	1	2	3	4	5
15. It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences to set an example for other students	1	2	3	4	5
16. It is _____ for teachers to reward the entire class (appropriate behavior) by granting extra playtime	1	2	3	4	5
17. It is _____ for teachers to promote children's social-emotional development by using praise	1	2	3	4	5
18. It is _____ for teachers to publicly criticize other for other students	1	2	3	4	5
19. It is _____ for teachers to use unpleasant consequences (e.g., name on board) with children who don't follow classroom rules	1	2	3	4	5
20. It is _____ for teachers to reward appropriate behavior with praise	1	2	3	4	5
21. It is _____ for teachers to publicly criticize other for classroom rules	1	2	3	4	5
22. It is _____ for teachers to ignore "being out" behaviors	1	2	3	4	5

Please complete this section of the questionnaire by circling the response on the following statements that best most nearly reflects YOUR BELIEFS about the referenced technique or practice described in the following examples.

1. To prevent Christopher's habit of using his capped hands to get water out of the water table, Mrs. Jackson has told Christopher that each day he plays without removing water out of the table, he may be kept outside after school time as responsibility in which Christopher neglects.

Please circle one of the following:

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A | B | C | D |
| The technique or practice is very inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat appropriate | The technique or practice is very appropriate |

Would you use the technique or practice? Circle one/ YES or NO
Why or why not?

2. The four-year-old Taddy has trouble paying attention during morning circle time. His often rolls around on the floor or has his back toward the teacher. The other children in Taddy's class laugh at Taddy's behavior, making a social situation. The teacher Ms. Aaron has tried changing Taddy's location in circle time and has attempted to use physical restraint for attention, with little success. She is confident that the circle time activities are interesting and appropriate. She has now decided that when Taddy exhibits these off task behaviors, she will send Taddy to time-out and be ready to pay attention and participate with the rest of the class.

Please circle one of the following:

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A | B | C | D |
| The technique or practice is very inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat appropriate | The technique or practice is very appropriate |

Would you use this technique or practice? Circle one/ YES or NO
Why or why not?

3. Mr. Hall is at the radio and Bobby is disruptive during morning circle time each day. To reduce Bobby's disruptive behavior during morning circle time, Mr. Hall decided that if Bobby can be a good listener and participate with the rest of the class, he'll receive a token. Bobby can later trade an accumulated number of earned tokens for various prizes and rewards. Mr. Hall makes sure that he presents Bobby with time for earning a token.

Please circle one of the following:

- | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
| A | B | C | D |
| The technique or practice is very inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat inappropriate | The technique or practice is appropriate | The technique or practice is very appropriate |

Would you use this technique or practice? (circle one) YES or NO

Why or why not?

4. When five year old Sally mentions to put the caps on the classroom markers, Mr. Forrest says, "Bobby, you put the markers back on their caps, not placed. Now the markers won't get dirty." They will be back and ready when someone else wants to use them."

Please circle one of the following:

- | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
| A | B | C | D |
| The technique or practice is very inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat inappropriate | The technique or practice is appropriate | The technique or practice is very appropriate |

Would you use this technique or practice? (circle one) YES or NO

Why or why not?

7. During large group time, Mr. Clark investigates class members' remembering to wear their masks. When children don't use Mr. Clark simply acknowledges behavior and makes neutral calls out a child with/without a face mask on.

Please circle one of the following

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A | B | C | D |
| The technique or practice is very inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat appropriate | The technique or practice is very appropriate |

Would you use this technique or practice? (circle one) YES or NO

Why or why not?

8. Mr. Warden is currently focused with his second grade class structures. She decides to implement a new classroom management technique. When a child breaks one of the class's rules his/her name is placed on the board. If a child breaks additional rules his/her name checks off, his/her name. When a child answers how should his/her name be. When his/her name is checked off his/her name is sent to the principal.

Please circle one of the following

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A | B | C | D |
| The technique or practice is very inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat inappropriate | The technique or practice is somewhat appropriate | The technique or practice is very appropriate |

Would you use this technique or practice? (circle one) YES or NO

Why or why not?

Comments:

Thank you for your time.

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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy


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